

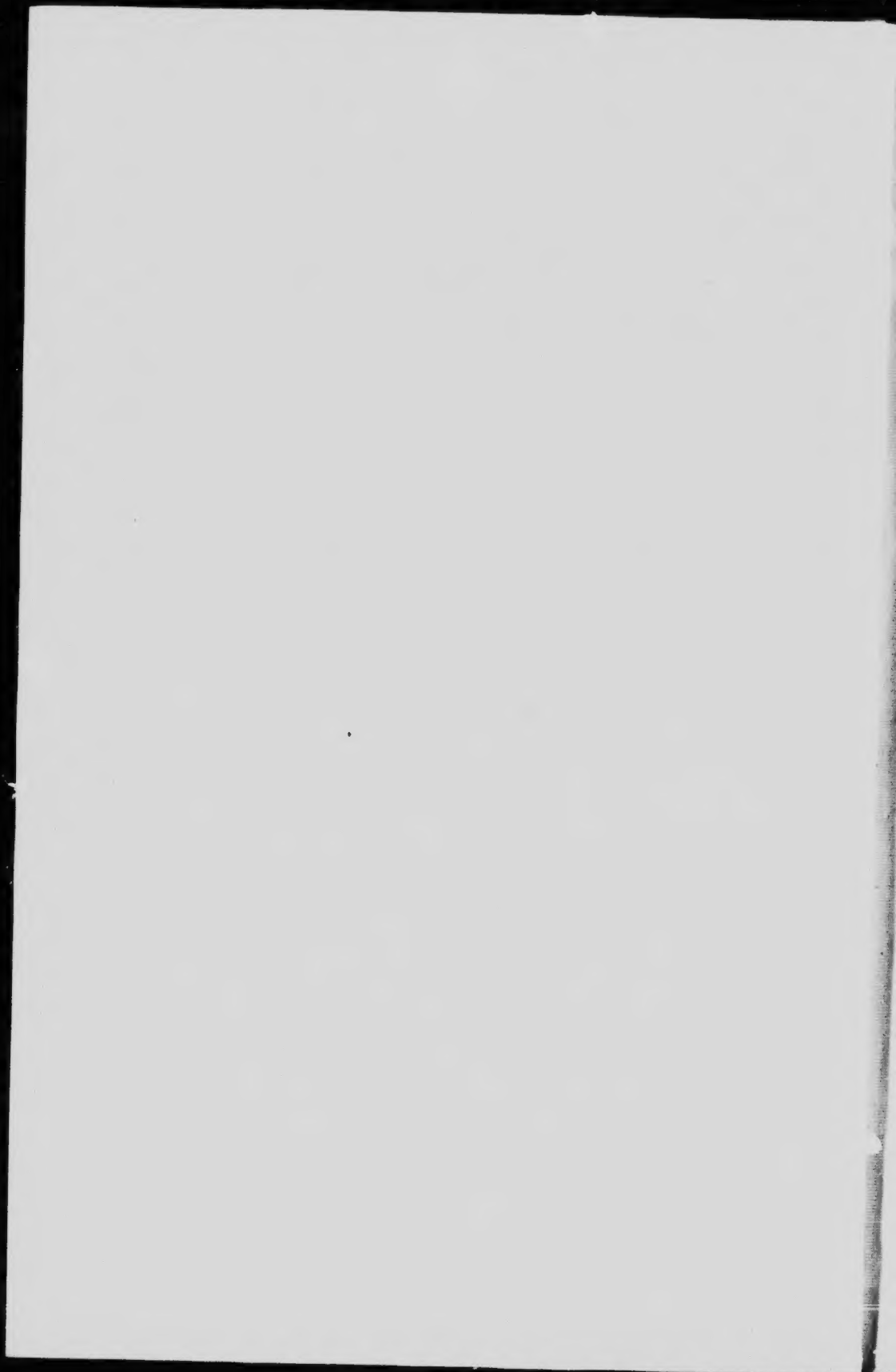
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PRINTED FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND CANADA

PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY
OF
ENGLAND

BY
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AND

PUBLIC SCHOOL HISTORY
OF
CANADA

BY
G. U. HAY, Ph.B., D.Sc.

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EXPLANATORY.

This little book is intended to lead up to the High School History, just as the High School History leads up to Green's Short History of the English People. The language has been made as simple as possible, especially in the earlier portion of the work, so that no needless obstacle may be placed in the path of the young child's progress.

The author is largely indebted to Miss Buckley, and Gardiner, Green, Freeman, and Justin McCarthy, for facts and suggestions. Nevertheless, he has very freely departed from any or all of these authors, where, in his opinion, circumstances demanded a different line of treatment.



PUBLIC SCHOOL.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN BEFORE ENGLAND.

1. Early Britain.—The land we call England is that part of the Island of Great Britain south of the River Tweed, with the exception of a small area on the western side, known as Wales. England covers about 50,000 square miles, and Wales a little over 7,000. Yet a great many people live in this little space, and a great many more have left its shores and settled all over the globe. The inhabitants are called English : but this was not always the case, for long before there were any English in England, the land was inhabited by at least three different races of men.

A great many years ago, when the surface of the country was very different from what it is now, and lions, tigers, elephants, and elks roamed over its plains and through its forests, a rude people, with little knowledge of tools and weapons, occupied the country. Then came another race with better weapons and some knowledge of cooking, and the care of domestic animals. Both races, however, made their weapons of stone, and for this reason are called the men of the "Old and New Stone Age." These things we know by the remains found in mounds or *barrows* of earth, and in caves and river-beds. Then came another race, evidently from the East, near Persia, that had some skill in working metals, such as bronze and iron. These people we call "Celts," and they were the inhabitants found in Britain when written history first tells anything about the island.

About 600 B.C. the Phœnicians, a trading people from the Mediterranean Sea, visited the country in quest of tin ; then, a

hundred years later, came the Greeks from Massilia or Marseilles in France. It was about this time that the name "Britannia" was given to the island of Great Britain.

2. Roman Conquest.—At last, in the year 55 B.C., a great Roman general, Julius Caesar, came across the Channel from France (then called Gaul), with an army, and defeated the Britons who had gathered on the coast to keep him from landing. He soon returned to Gaul, but came back the next year, and once more defeated the Britons. Again he left the island—this time to return no more.

When Caesar visited Britain he found the people on the southern coast fairly civilized. They had war-chariots, and fought with spears, axes and pikes. They wore ornaments of gold and silver, and clad themselves in mantles and tunics of cloth such as were worn by the people on the opposite coast of Gaul. In fact, these Britons along the southern coast kept up a trade with their neighbors, the Gauls, who were at this time much more civilized than the people of Britain living inland. The latter were a very savage and rude people, dwelling in wretched huts, or in caves in the earth. They dressed in skins of beasts, their food being milk and meat, and further north, roots, leaves, and nuts. The more savage wore no clothing, but stained their bodies and limbs somewhat in the same fashion as the North American Indians do. Their religion was Druidism, and the oak was their sacred tree, under which they worshipped and offered up sacrifices. These sacrifices were often human beings, who were burnt in large cages of wicker work at the command of the Druids, or priests, who had great influence over the people and made their laws.

The Romans, who were to play an important part in the history of Britain, came from Italy and had for their chief city, Rome. They were a very stern and hard people, and at the time when Caesar visited Britain, had conquered nearly all the known world. But they made good laws and forced the people they subdued to obey them.

After Caesar left Britain, the Romans made no further efforts to conquer it until 43, A.D., when their Emperor Claudius came with an army, and after much fighting took possession of the south of the island. The British chief, Caractacus, fought bravely against

the well-disciplined Romans, but was taken prisoner and sent to Rome. Then Boadicea, queen of one of the tribes, strove to free the country from the invaders ; but she, after winning a great battle, was also defeated by the Roman generals, and, it is said, killed herself to escape ill-treatment at their hands. Thus nearly all Britain, from the southern coast to the Firths of Clyde and Forth, was made part of the great Roman Empire. But it took many years to do this, for the Britons were a brave people, and as the land was covered with forests and bogs, it was difficult for the Roman soldiers to pursue and attack the natives.

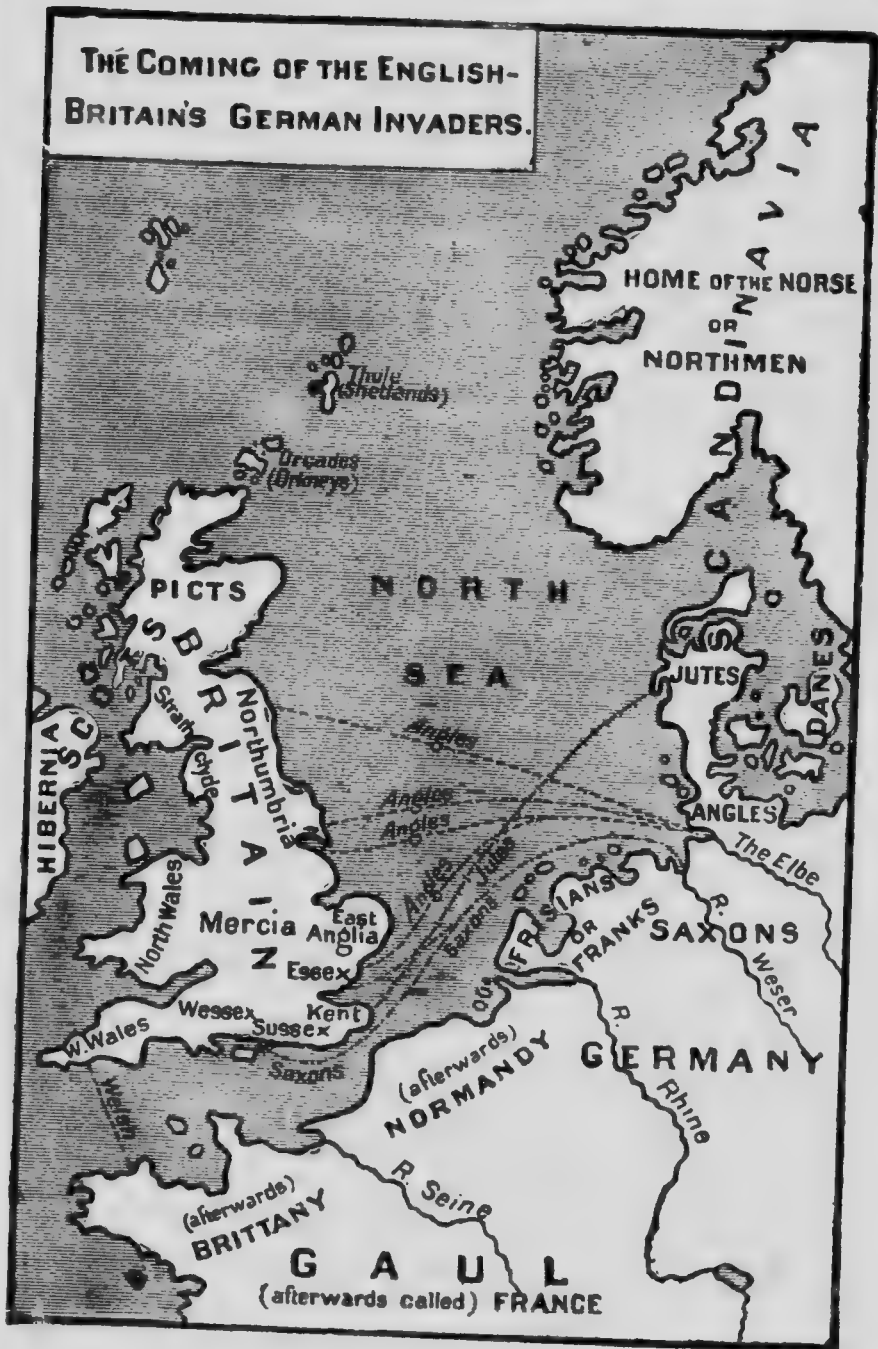
The Romans did not ill-treat the Britons, but they did not allow them to carry weapons or to fight in their own defence. They built good, straight, solid roads for their soldiers to pass from point to point, and the remains of their roads and camps are yet to be found in many parts of England and Scotland. Cities, too, were built, such as York ; forests were cleared and grain grown in abundance, so much so that large quantities of wheat were sent from Britain to Rome to feed the people of that city. The Roman language, Latin, became the speech of the better educated and wealthier Britons, although most of the people continued to speak their native tongue. Not the least of the good results of Roman Rule was the spread of Christianity in the island. One thing, however, the Romans did, which was not for the good of the people they conquered. They made them depend upon their masters for defence against attacks from their enemies, the Picts, who lived in Scotland, and the Scots, who came from Ireland. The once brave Britons, after a few hundred years of Roman rule, lost the power to defend themselves, and so when the Romans had to leave Britain, about 400 A.D., to protect the empire from enemies nearer home, the Britons were not able to beat back the fierce Picts and Scots who came pouring down from the wilds of Scotland to rob and murder them. In the next chapter we shall see how this led to the coming of the English.

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

1. **The Coming of the English.**—We have seen that the Britons were much troubled, after the Romans left, by the Picts and Scots, tribes who spoke much the same language as the Britons themselves. Besides these enemies they had others of a different race, who came from the shores of the North Sea, especially from the low-lying lands about the mouths of the Elbe and Weser. These were the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, who before the Romans left Britain had often landed on the coast, and plundered the people, carrying off men, women, and children, and such booty as they could get. They were a fierce, strong, freedom-loving people, with blue eyes and long fair hair, and spoke a language we call Teutonic, somewhat like the Dutch language of to-day. In their own land they lived in tribes, with chiefs at the head who led in times of war, and helped to govern in times of peace. As their own country could not well support them, they took to the sea, and became skilled and hardy sailors. In their little vessels they crossed the North Sea, and plundered the coasts of Britain, Gaul, and Ireland. The poor Britons were so distressed by attacks from their various enemies that they called in two chiefs of the Jutes to help them against the Picts and Scots, hoping in this way to make one enemy fight the other. But Hengist and Horsa, after landing on the Isle of Thanet, A.D., 449, and defeating the Picts and Scots, began to slay and drive away the Britons and to take their lands for themselves.

The Jutes were soon followed by the Saxons, and last of all came the Angles, who gave the name of England to the southern part of the Island. But whether Jutes, Angles, or Saxons, they treated the Britons much in the same fashion. Unlike the Romans, who spared the conquered, they either killed the Britons or drove them westward into what is now Wales, Devon, and Cornwall. It took many years for these German tribes to get possession of Southern Britain, for the Britons at times fought desperately for their homes; but their resistance was of no avail. The Britons were either killed or driven out, and the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons





settled down in families and tribes in their place. The new-comers did not like walled towns and cities—but preferred to live in open villages and till the soil, either destroying the towns of the Britons or allowing them to fall into ruins.

2. Social and Political Condition of the English.—The English, as these tribes came to be called, were not a nation as we understand the word; but were a number of free and independent tribes that under their chiefs had come over to Britain to conquer and plunder. After the Britons were expelled, they settled down from their roving sea-life in separate village communities, and began to till the soil. There were three kinds of people in these communities. First of all, we have the *Eorl*, a man of higher birth and greater wealth than the rest. Then came the *Ceorl* or churl, a freeman of lower birth, who nevertheless had his own house and tilled his own piece of land. Last of all we have the *slaves*, either Britons or men who had sold or lost their freedom, and who might be sold out of the country by their masters. Only freemen were allowed to take part in the village *moot* or meeting, where all questions in dispute were settled. A man found guilty by his fellows of a crime usually could escape by paying a fine. He could prove his innocence by getting his neighbours to swear he was an honest man. This was called "*compurgation*." Otherwise he had to undergo the "*ordeal*," which consisted in walking blindfold with bare feet over hot ploughshares, or in dipping the hand into boiling hot water. If unhurt after this "*ordeal*" he was declared innocent.

The villages were some distance from each other; but when any important matter of peace or war had to be considered, men from several villages met in what was called the "*Folkmoot*," or meeting of the tribe. Here they chose their aldermen from the *Eorls*, to lead them to battle, or to speak and act for them in the great meeting of the wise men of the tribes known as the "*Witangemot*." After a time the *Witangemot* began to choose one man from the aldermen to lead—and he was the "*king*." He was always elected, and could not appoint his successor; but the custom was to choose the king from the same family on account of its supposed descent from Woden, their god of war.

3. The English become Christians.—When the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes came to England they were heathens, and believed in

gods, water-spirits, and wood-demons. Their chief god was Woden, who rewarded them after death for their bravery and for the number of their enemies they killed. Heaven was to them a place where they could fight and carouse, for these German tribes were very fond of eating and drinking. From the names of their gods we get our names for the days of the week, such as Wednesday or Wodensday, from the god Woden.

It took some time to get the English to accept Christianity, for being a steadfast race they clung to their own customs and religion. At last, as the story goes, some English slaves were taken to Rome to be sold, and Bishop Gregory the Great, Bishop of Rome, when a young man, seeing how fair and beautiful they were, asked whence they came, and was told they were Angles. "Not Angles," said he, "but Angels," and when he became bishop he sent, in 596, a missionary named Augustine, with forty monks to convert the English. Augustine landed in Kent, and his first convert was Ethelbert, King of Kent, whose wife was a Christian from France. Afterwards, many of Ethelbert's people were baptized as Christians, and Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury. From Kent the Roman missionaries carried the new religion to Northumbria, where King Edwin ruled. Edwin called his Witan together and, after listening to the missionaries, they also accepted Christianity.

But other Christian missionaries had been busy in the north of England before Augustine came to the country. These came from the small rocky island of Iona, on the west coast of Scotland, where a mission station had been planted by Columba, an Irish monk. For the Irish had become Christians under the teaching of St. Patrick more than a hundred years before, and Irish missionaries made their way to the north and middle of England and did much to introduce Christianity among the fierce and heathen English. After a time, in 664, the Irish missionaries and those from Rome having disputed about some trifling matters relating to church services, the King of Northumbria decided in favour of the latter, and the work went on under bishops in sympathy with the Roman usages. The effect of their teaching was soon seen, for the rude and restless English settled down to steady work, began to learn trades, and to build up small towns around the monasteries which now sprang up in

the land. The English also lost much of their fierceness and love of plunder and fighting, and began to love learning as taught them by the monks.

4. Supremacy of Wessex. For a long time after the English came they remained divided under their several kings. In the north there was a powerful kingdom called Northumbria, in the inland another called Mercia, while in the south and west we find another called Wessex. Indeed at one time there were seven of these little kingdoms, known as the "Heptarchy;" but their boundaries were continually changing through the wars waged by one against the other. When one king became stronger than the others he held a kind of supremacy over them, and was known as the "Bretwalda." At first the King of Northumbria was "Bretwalda," then the King of Mercia, and finally in 827, Egbert, King of Wessex, got the supremacy and was Bretwalda from the south to the Firth of Forth. He was also king of all the English south of the Thames. In these days, a king was not called King of *England*, but King of the *English*. So, for over 200 years the kings of Wessex held the chief power over the English people.

CHAPTER III.

STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND THE DANES.

1. The coming of the Danes.—But peace did not come to the English when Egbert became king, for new enemies appeared. These were the Danes, a people of the same blood as the English, but living in Denmark and Norway. They were called Northmen or Norsemen, and unlike the English, had remained heathens. They were as fierce and warlike as the English had been before Christianity changed their habits and softened their manners. They came in great numbers in their boats, and landing on the coasts of England, Scotland, Ireland, and France, plundered the inhabitants, carrying off prisoners, and burning the homes of the defenceless people. They specially delighted in robbing and burning monasteries, partly because they were the homes of the priests

of the Christian religion, and partly because much wealth was gathered there. Besides the monks could not offer much opposition to them. Egbert and his son and grandsons did their utmost to drive back these robbers. At times the English were successful and defeated the enemy, but they gradually lost ground until a great part of England was subdued by the Danes. Northumbria, Mercia, and East Angli were thus taken by them, and then they turned their arms against Wessex. Here four grandsons of Egbert reigned in succession and strove to keep back the Danes. The last of these kings was Alfred, who began to reign in 871. He was chosen king over his brother's son, who was a mere lad, because the English wanted a brave leader at this perilous time, and Alfred had shown his courage in many a fierce fight with the invaders.

2. Alfred the Great.—Few kings have been such good rulers as Alfred, and few have had so many difficulties to overcome. When quite a little lad at his mother's knee he was fond of reading and learning, although books at that time were very scarce. He was sent to Rome when four years old, and there learned much which helped him greatly after he became king. He was troubled all his life with a painful disease, and at the very outset of his reign had to do battle against the ravaging Danes. But he bore himself bravely and manfully at all times, although for the first seven years of his reign he met with nothing but defeat in his struggle against the enemy. In 878, so great was his distress, he had to fly in disguise to the marshes and woods of Somersetshire. There, it is said, while hiding in a swineherd's hut, he allowed the good wife's cakes to burn, so intent was he on thinking out a plan by means of which he could save his country. At last he gathered his scattered followers together in Athelney, an island in Somersetshire, and inspiring them with his own hope and courage, attacked and defeated the Danish leader, Guthrum, at Edington. He then made him sign a treaty, called the Treaty of Wedmore, whereby the Danes kept that part of England north of a line from London to Chester, while Alfred kept all south of that line. By this treaty the Danes held Northumbria, East Anglia, and part of Mercia, and this land became known as the Danelagh. Many of the Danes became Christians, and Alfred's supremacy over the Danelagh was recognized. This treaty gave the land peace for many years, and

Alfred now tried to improve the condition of his people, and to give them good laws.

3. Alfred's Government.—Among other good things that Alfred did, he collected the old laws of the English and added others from the Ten Commandments and the laws of Moses, and these he put in force. He built monasteries and schools and sought to fill them with pupils under wise and learned teachers. He translated books, which were then written in Latin, into English, and so may be said to be the Father of English literature.

Not content with trying to educate his people, he took great care that they should be taught to defend themselves against the Danes. He divided his men into two bodies—one to go out to fight against the Danes, if they came, and the other to guard the homes of the people. He also built ships to keep the Danes away from the shore, and thus began the English navy. His time was always fully occupied, one part of the day being given to sleep, another to prayer, and a third to work. Thus it was that Alfred, although often ill and troubled by wars and dangers, did more for his people and his kingdom than most kings who have ruled in England.

4. Alfred's successors.—Alfred died in 899, and was succeeded by his son Edward (the Elder). Edward's sons Athelstan, Edmund, Edred, and his grandson Edgar gradually but surely won back the Danelagh from the Danes. In 959, an English king once more ruled over all England. Both English and Danes became subjects of Edgar the Peaceful, Edward's brother. By this time the Danes and the English were alike. They were of the same hardy race, and though their languages differed somewhat, they easily learned to talk with one another. The Danes had become Christians while in England, and had lost much of their rudeness and love of fighting and plundering. We, to-day, can tell where they lived by the names of towns they founded, these nearly always ending in "by." Thus Gainsby, Derby, and Kirkby, are places of Danish origin, while towns whose names end in "ham" or "ton" are English towns.

5. Dunstan.—Edgar did not really rule England, that was the work of a great man in his reign, Archbishop Dunstan. It was Dunstan's task to make the English and Danes live peaceably together, and this he did by allowing the Danes to keep their own

laws and customs. Like Alfred the Great, he loved learning, and sought to educate the people. He brought in from abroad good teachers, and encouraged the monks to write books and lead pure lives and be diligent in teaching and caring for the people. Under Dunstan commerce revived, for fleets guarded the English shores against the attacks of the Northmen, and enabled traders from France and Germany to visit England. Men of the same trade began to unite in societies or *guilds* to look after their own interests, while the householders of each *burgh* or borough claimed the right to manage their own affairs.

6. Social changes.—A great change had by this time come over the English people since they first came to England. The king had now become much more powerful by reason of the increase in the number of his personal followers or thegns. These thegns got land from the king and became a kind of nobility, and did not recognize any authority except that of the king. Again, many of the ceorls had given up their freedom during the troublous times of the Danes. Not able to defend themselves they became the “men” of rich and powerful nobles, and had to work for them in return for protection. These “villeins” (from “villanus” a husbandman), although no longer free, were not badly treated. They had houses and land of their own; and for food had barley-bread, fish, vegetables, fruit, and buttermilk. Nevertheless they could no longer take part in the village meeting, nor move from place to place without their masters’ permission.

The lower order of freemen, the ancestors of our yeomanry, lived comfortably on their own homesteads. They had an abundance of good food and clothing and were a sturdy, manly class, with a strong love of freedom and independence. It is from this class, living chiefly in the North of England, that so many brave men have come, who on many battlefields have saved England from her enemies, both at home and abroad.

The nobles having less to do than the ceorls, lived idle and often riotous lives. Their slaves and villeins did all their work, and provided for all their wants. When not engaged in fighting, they passed their time in hawking, hunting, racing, wrestling, and other rough out-door sports. In their halls the ladies spun or embroidered, and amused themselves with travelling glee-

men who sang and played ballads to while away the tedious hours. It was from the nobles and bishops that the Witangemot was chosen, which had great power in choosing the king, in making laws and treaties, and governing the people. In olden times every freeman had a right to a voice in making the laws; but now this was impossible, and it fell to the king and his Witan to do all the governing.

7. Danish Conquest.—This was the state of the English people in Dunstan's time. Dunstan did not remain the king's minister long after Edgar died, for a quarrel having arisen in the church about the right of the clergy to marry, Dunstan, who favored an unmarried clergy, retired to Canterbury, and a few years later died.

The next king after Edgar was another Edward, and then came Ethelred, rightly called the Unready or "Uncounselled," because he would not take good advice. In Edgar's time the Danes from Denmark and Norway were kept off, but now, Ethelred being a weak king, they landed in great numbers, and once more the land was plundered and the people murdered. Ethelred tried to buy them off, but this only brought them back in greater numbers. Then Ethelred married Emma of Normandy, hoping that her people would help him against the Danes. At last he had a great many of them treacherously murdered on St. Brice's Day, 13th November, 1002. But this only made matters worse, for among the slain was the sister of the Danish king, Swegen or Sweyn. To revenge his sister, Swegen came over with a large army, and Ethelred fled to Normandy. Sweyn died, but his son Cnut, a still more terrible enemy, continued the war. When Ethelred died in 1016, his son Edmund Ironsides fought so bravely and well that Cnut agreed to divide England with him. Edmund, however, died, and then Cnut became king of all the country.

8. Danish Rule.—Cnut, although cruel in his earlier days, ruled justly and mildly after he became king. He governed by the English laws, and tried to stop the trade in slaves that went on between Bristol and Ireland. English and Danes alike obeyed him, and for eighteen years the troubled land had peace. His reign came to an end in 1036.

Cnut had married Emma of Normandy, Ethelred's widow, and

by her had two sons, Harold and Harthacnut, who in turn succeeded him. They were wild, vicious, and brutal young men. Fortunately their reigns were soon over, Harthacnut, the last to rule, dying in 1042. The English then sent over to France for Edward, the son of Ethelred and Emma, and once more an English king ruled in England.

CHAPTER IV.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST

1. The Normans.—Edward, surnamed the Confessor on account of his being placed in the Calendar of Saints, was not wholly an English king, for his mother, Emma, was a Norman ; and Edward himself had been brought up among the Normans, and in tastes and feelings was more Norman than English. We must explain who these Normans were, that now began to interfere in English affairs.

When England, in the time of Alfred, was troubled with the Northmen landing on her shores, France, too, was suffering from their ravages. Large boat-loads of these pirates sailed up the River Seine, and one band seized Rouen. The French king, being feeble and cowardly, gave a large tract of land along the Seine to Rollo, or Rolf, a famous chief of the Northmen, on condition that Rollo should become a Christian and settle quietly down. The land thus wrested from the French was called Normandy, and was ruled by Rollo and his descendants. After the Normans had been in France a while they became much more polished and civilized by being brought into contact with the French, who were a lively, quick-witted people with refined tastes for music, art, and architecture. Thus it came to pass that the Norsemen in France had a different language and were much more civilized than their kinsmen in England. It was among these people that Edward had been brought up, while his mother Emma was living in England as the wife of

Cnut. Edward, too, it is said, was a fast friend of his cousin William, the young Duke of Normandy, and it was quite natural that when Edward became king of England he should favour the Normans who followed him into England. To these he gave high offices, much to the displeasure of the English ; and, when William of Normandy later on visited him in England, Edward is said to have promised him the Crown.

2. **Godwin.**—Among others who were angry with the king for favouring foreigners was Godwin, Earl of Wessex, whose sister Edith, Edward had married. Godwin was a very powerful noble, and during Edward's reign really did most of the ruling, for Edward spent his time in religious duties, and looking after the building of a great abbey called Westminster, on the banks of the Thames. Shortly after Edward's reign began, Godwin and the king became unfriendly towards each other on account of the influence of Edward's Norman favourites in the land. It happened that a quarrel arose between the people of Dover and some Normans in which several Normans were killed, and because Godwin would not punish his own countrymen without a fair trial, Godwin and his sons had to leave England for Flanders. While he was away the Normans did much as they pleased, and there was so much discontent in England that Edward had to permit Godwin to return. The Normans saw that their influence was at an end, and most of them went back to Normandy. Godwin now was the chief man in England, and when he died a few years later, his son Harold succeeded to his power, and ruled well for Edward, who cared little for aught save his religious duties.

3. **Harold.**—Edward had no children, and the English people had begun to look to Harold as their future king. William of Normandy expected to be made king, but Edward invited over, from Hungary, Edward, the son of Edmund Ironsides, to succeed him. This man, however, died, and left a young son, Edgar, known afterwards as the Atheling. Harold and William were now the rival claimants for the throne. A story is told that once Harold was shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy, and falling into William's hands was forced to take a solemn oath that he would help William to become king of England. To make the oath still more solemn, William, it is said, secretly placed sacred relics under

the altar. However, when Edward was dying in 1066, he named Harold to succeed him, and the Witan gladly chose him to be their king.

4. Norwegian Invasion.—Harold was scarcely crowned before he had to do battle for his kingdom. Among his enemies was his own brother Tostig, who, having been exiled some time before, had gone to Norway. He now came back with the Norwegian King Hardrada, and sailing up the Humber landed with a large army in Yorkshire. Harold was watching the southern coast for the army of William of Normandy, who had gathered a large force of desperate men from different parts of Europe to invade and plunder England. William had sought and obtained the blessing of the Pope on his enterprise, because Harold had broken his solemn oath. As William did not immediately arrive, Harold marched to meet the Norwegian king. A great battle was fought at Stamford Bridge, in Yorkshire, in which Tostig and Hardrada were both killed, and the Norwegian army defeated.

5. Battle of Hastings.—Hardly, however, had Harold's army recovered from the effects of this battle when a messenger came to tell him that William had landed at Pevensey in Sussex. At once Harold hastened to meet this new invader, gathering, as he marched, the men of the south to his side to defend the country. He found the Normans encamped at Hastings, and at once began preparations for battle. In this Harold was not wise, for his men were worn out and tired with travel, while the Normans were fresh and strong. Harold was advised to lay the country waste, and starve William out ; but this he would not do. On the 14th October, 1066, near a hill called Senlac, a little distance from Hastings, a famous battle began. It was to decide whether England was to be governed by the English or by the Normans. Both armies were brave and stubborn, but they fought very differently. The English fought, like their forefathers, on foot, closely ranked together, and defended by a breastwork of shields and palisades. Their weapons were javelins and two-handed axes. The Norman knights were used to fighting on horseback, man and horse being clad in mail. Besides, the Normans brought into battle archers whose arrows did deadly work. The English were posted on the face of the hill, and so long as they refused to stir the Normans could not break their ranks.

The Normans in vain strove to break through the firm wall of English shields, and at one time so sturdy and fierce was the resistance of Harold's men that the Normans began to give way, and a cry arose that William was slain. But William snatched off his helmet to show his followers that he was unhurt, and then making his warriors pretend to flee, led the English to pursue them. Then, an opening being made among the English shields, the horsemen turned, rode in and cut the English to pieces. Nevertheless, the battle lasted for many hours, for a chosen band of Harold's men gathered round their king, and kept the Normans at bay. Then William ordered his archers to shoot their arrows upwards so that coming down they would strike the English on the head. One of these arrows pierced Harold's eye, and he fell. His men fought stubbornly over his body, seeking to save their king, until they were cut down. At last Harold was slain by four Norman knights, and the battle was won by William. Harold's body was given to his mother by the victor to be buried in its royal robes under a heap of stones near the battlefield.

With Harold ended the English kings, for William marched to London, and the Witan not being able to offer him any opposition chose him king. He did not claim the crown as a conqueror, but as the rightful heir of Edward the Confessor. As we shall see in the next chapter, it took William several years to get all England to accept him as king.

CHAPTER V.

THE EARLY NORMANS.

1. William I., or the Conqueror.—William, the son of Robert, Duke of Normandy, and Arlotta, a tanner's daughter, was crowned King of England on Christmas Day. He was a tall, strong man, who loved fighting and hunting. To those who stood in his way and opposed him, he was harsh and cruel; but in the main he loved order and just government. He made many good laws for

the English, although in some instances he acted very sternly and tyrannically. But he would not allow any one else to oppress the people, and his strong hand kept his Norman followers under control.

2. Feudal System.—The men who helped William to gain the Battle of Hastings did so in the hope of gaining rich estates and fine homes in England. They fought for gain, and now that William had become king they looked to him to give them their reward. This William found he would have to do, as the English in the North and West were not fully conquered, and without the aid of his knights he could not keep his hold on the land. On the plea that all those who had fought under Harold were traitors, he took their lands and divided them among his Norman friends. Whenever a rising took place against his rule, he would crush it out with great cruelty, and then would keep the estates of the unfortunate rebels, or give them away to his friends. In this way most of the land of the English passed to the king and his greedy followers. But William did not give these lands for nothing. He made each landowner take an oath that whenever called upon he would aid the king with men and money, and under no circumstances would rebel against him. To prevent these Norman barons from becoming too powerful, he gave them their lands in different counties, so that they could not unite against him, or have too many followers in one place. These barons in turn gave out a portion of their estates to their followers, who also had to give aid to their "lord" when called upon. But William was afraid that his barons might get their men to fight against the king, as often happened in France and Germany, and so made each landowner take an oath to obey the king first, under pain of forfeiting his estates. This was all very different from the English system, by which each freeman held his own land. Now all the land was held from the king, directly or indirectly, and the "vassal" had to kneel bareheaded before him and place his hands in the king's hands, and then swear to give faithful service. He then got from the king his "fief" or "feudum," which was to belong to him and his heirs for ever. This mode of holding land is called the "Feudal System." It was slightly known in England before William became king, for the English kings had been wont to

give lands in somewhat the same fashion to their thanes or immediate followers.

3. Risings Against the Normans.—It took William more than three years to become master of all England. Shortly after his coronation he had to return to Normandy, and while he was absent the English in the West and North, aided by the Scots and Danes, rose against their oppressors. A massacre of Normans took place at York, and William hastened to take a terrible revenge. York was retaken from the English, and then William, to put a barrier between himself and the Scots, laid desolate the whole country between York and Durham. Everything was destroyed—towns, villages, crops, and cattle—and the poor inhabitants were left to starve, or were driven into Scotland. More than 100,000 innocent people lost their lives, and the land ceased to be cultivated for many years.

The only persons who now held out against William were a few hundred English outlaws under the leadership of Morkere and Hereward-the-Wake. This brave little band of patriots for nearly a year kept William at bay, by taking refuge in the Isle of Ely, where they were protected from attack by streams and fens. But in 1071 William built a causeway across the Fen, and the patriots were either killed, scattered, or forced to make their submission.

4. New Forest and Domesday Book.—There was now a forced peace in the land, and William made many changes, some of which were good, and some very bad. Among many cruel things which William did the worst was the laying waste of 90,000 acres of land in Hampshire to make a forest in which he could keep game and hunt. Much of this land was barren, but some of it was fertile, and the poor people living on it were driven out. William loved the "high deer," and any man found killing his game was sentenced to have his eyes put out. To William a deer was more valuable than a man.

Another change of a different kind was the surveying of all England to find out how much land was cultivated, and how much forest, bog, and fen. In this way William was able to tell what taxes each person should pay. All these facts were written in a

book called *Domesday Book*, because it was the book by which the Doom or final decision of the judges was given. It is from this book we get most of our knowledge of the condition of England at this time. It was prepared in 1086.

5. Chief Effects of the Norman Conquest.—Besides the *New Forest* and *Domesday Book* there were many other important results of bringing the Normans into England. William ruled with a strong hand, and by allowing complaints to be made before the King's Court he kept his barons from oppressing the English. Sheriffs were appointed to look after the royal revenue from the shires where the laws of the English were allowed. He kept the Church under control, but allowed the clergy to have their own courts. Strong castles were built all over the land to keep the English in check. One of these arose on the banks of the Thames, and is called the Tower of London. But most important of all were the changes made in the social habits and customs of the English. The Normans were a courtly, refined people, with a love of music, art, learning, and architecture, while the English were coarse in their habits and tastes, and cared for little except eating, drinking, and brawling. At first the Normans and English did not intermingle, for the Normans despised the English as a rude and conquered people. After a time the two people came closer together, and then the good results of the Conquest were seen. The English became more refined, with higher and better tastes; and the Normans gained much from the English, who were a sturdy, honest, freedom-loving people. The language of the nation, too, was affected. For though it remained English many Norman-French words were added, especially words that tell of the social life and habits of the conquerors. With the Normans came also an increased commerce with the rest of Europe, the knowledge of many trades, and skill in many arts.

6. Death of William I.—William's reign was a troubled one. When not putting down revolts in England, he was busy looking after his interests in Normandy, where the French king sought to injure him. Then his son Robert made war against him, and nearly killed him in battle. At last, in 1087, while attacking a town in France called Nantes, his horse stumbled and hurt him so severely

that he died shortly afterwards at Rouen. He was succeeded by his second son, William Rufus.

7. Character of William Rufus.—The Conqueror left three sons, Robert, the eldest, William, and Henry. To Robert he left Normandy and Maine, but he named William to succeed him in England, because he knew that Robert was too weak and good-natured to keep his unruly barons in check. William Rufus, or the Red King, was as able and fierce as his father, but not so just and wise as a ruler. His one good quality was that he would not allow his barons to rob and oppress the English, that power he kept for himself. For that reason the English came to his aid against his brother Robert, whose cause the Norman barons supported. Robert landed with an army at Pevensey, near where the Battle of Hastings was fought, and William called upon the English to assist him. With their aid he defeated Robert and drove him out of the country.

8. Anselm and the King.—Among the great men who lived at this time was Lanfranc, the Archbishop of Canterbury. He was a wise and good man, and in the Conqueror's time had been Rufus' tutor. So long as Lanfranc lived, Rufus governed fairly well, but when he died Rufus began to rob and oppress his people. To get money he kept high offices in the Church, such as bishoprics and abbacies, vacant. The incomes from these offices would then go into the king's treasury. When Lanfranc died the king did not appoint his successor until after many years. Perhaps he would not have appointed any had he not become very ill. He then repented of his sins and forced the learned and gentle Anselm to become Archbishop. Anselm was very unwilling to take the crozier or crook of office, for he knew that the king, as soon as he was better, would forget to carry out the promises made when sick. And so it happened. No sooner had the king recovered than he began again his evil ways. and Anselm, having tried in vain to control him, was glad to leave the country. The king now had no one to restrain him, and from this time to the end of his reign, in every possible way, he robbed and plundered his subjects. One of his instruments in this work was Ralph Flambard, his *Justiciar*, or chief of the justices, who taxed the people heavily and unjustly.

9. The Crusades.—During this reign the Crusades began. Peter the Hermit, encouraged by the Pope, went through Europe preaching against the Turks, because they ill-treated Christian pilgrims who visited the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem. A multitude of people, sewing a colored cross (*crux*) on their arms, went forth from Europe to fight against the Turks. With them went Robert, William's brother, having, however, first pledged his duchy to William for a sum of money with which to go on the expedition. This was in 1096. So while Robert was absent William governed both England and Normandy, and took English men and money into France to help him in his wars.

10. Death of Rufus, 1100 A.D.—The people groaned under their heavy burdens and the famine which now came; but the end was near. One day Rufus was hunting in the New Forest, and after a time being missed by his attendants they sought for him, only to find him dead, with an arrow in his breast. Some thought that he had been shot accidentally by Walter Tyrrell, while others, with perhaps good reason, believed that one of the many oppressed by the cruel forest laws had seized the opportunity to take the wicked king's life. Rufus died "in his sins," and his body was not given a religious burial. His brother Henry at once hastened to Winchester and seized the royal treasure, fearing Robert's return from the Crusades. So Henry became king, Robert being absent in the Holy Land.

11. Henry I.—Henry, the youngest son of the Conqueror, was a quiet thoughtful man, with so much learning for his time, that he was called "Beauclerc," or "Fine Scholar." Nevertheless he kept a firm hand on his barons, and as he knew that his throne depended on the good-will of the English, he gave them a "charter," and restored the laws of Edward the Confessor. He relieved the people from many of their unjust burdens, and, to please the English still more, married Edith, the daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and grand-daughter of Edmund Ironsides. All these things Henry did because he knew that when Robert returned from the Crusades he would claim the throne and would be supported by most of the barons. After a time Robert came home, and as expected, the barons rose in his favour. Peace, however, was made between the brothers, Robert receiving a pension from Henry.

But Robert governed his duchy of Normandy so badly, that Henry went over with an army, and defeating him at the battle of Tenchebrai (A.D. 1106), took him prisoner. Robert remained in prison the rest of his life, while Henry ruled over both England and Normandy.

12. Henry's Good Government.—Normans and English were now coming nearer together, and the union was made still closer by Henry's good laws. Bishop Roger, his Justiciar, or chief judge, helped Henry to bring the revenues of the kingdom into order. The people got back their shire-moots, and the sheriffs every year went to the King's Court to pay in the rents and taxes to the royal treasury. The money was paid out on a chequered cloth, and the room where this took place became known as the "Court of Exchequer." The King's justices, too, went from place to place each year to settle disputes, and to see no wrong was done.

In this reign many towns and cities bought from the king charters giving them the right to manage their own affairs. The Normans were accustomed to settle their disputes by "trial by battle," which was a great public duel, whereas the English used the "ordeal." The citizens of the towns were now not required to use the "trial by battle," and their trade was freed from tolls. The good laws and good order in the land brought in people from abroad. Among others were the Flemings, who introduced the art of weaving wool.

13. Henry and the Church.—Henry, like William Rufus, had a dispute with Anselm, who had returned to England. It was about the right of electing bishops. Rufus had kept the bishoprics vacant, and to prevent this Anselm wanted to have the bishops elected by the clergy. Henry, on the other hand, wished Anselm to do "homage" for the land of his See, or Archbishopric, and this Anselm at first refused to do, as it seemed to give Henry too much power in spiritual matters. Finally the matter was settled by Henry agreeing to the election of bishops by the clergy of the cathedrals, and by the bishops doing homage to the king for their lands.

14. Death of Henry, 1135 A.D.—The last days of Henry were very sad. His only son William was drowned while attempting to cross from Normandy to England. He then wished his daughter

Matilda, the wife of the Count of Anjou, to succeed him ; but this did not please the barons, who disliked the thought of being ruled by a woman. Henry, however, made his barons swear to support Matilda and her baby son. Soon after this Henry died, and the land was once more thrown into confusion by the disputes and wars of rivals for the throne.

15. Civil War.—Although the barons had sworn to support Matilda, yet the most of them chose Stephen, the son of Adela, the Conqueror's daughter, to be their king. They did not care to have a woman rule over them, and they knew that Stephen was weak and good-natured, and could not hinder them from having their own way. So Stephen came to England and was crowned king in Matilda's absence. But Matilda's uncle, David of Scotland, with the help of some of the barons, made war against Stephen in her behalf, and fought and lost the famous "Battle of the Standard" at Cowton Moor, in Yorkshire. This battle took place in 1138, and its name arose from the fact that the English had as their standard a ship's mast hung with sacred banners. This was, however, only one of many battles fought between the barons who supported Stephen and those who supported Matilda. At one time Matilda was victorious and Stephen was a prisoner ; and then it was Stephen who was victorious and Matilda a prisoner. In 1147 Matilda, discouraged, left England for a time.

16. Misery of the People.—In no reign did the people suffer so much from the wickedness and cruelty of their rulers as in the reign of Stephen. The struggle between Stephen and Matilda left the barons to do much as they liked. They built strong castles, coined money, and made war against one another. Their castles were nothing but robbers' dens whence the barons came forth to plunder, slay, and burn. "They burnt houses and sacked towns. If they suspected any one of concealing his wealth, they carried him off to their castle, and there they tortured him to make him confess where his money was. They hanged men up by the feet and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by their thumbs, others by their heads, and burning things were hung on to their feet." The people cried to Heaven for help, but for years no help came. "Men said openly that Christ and His saints slept."

17. Death of Stephen, A.D. 1154.—At last, after nineteen years of suffering, relief came. Stephen's son died, and Henry, Matilda's son, landed with an army in England to fight his own battles. Theobald, the Archbishop of Canterbury, now used his influence with Stephen to put an end to this wretched strife. Stephen saw that he must, sooner or later, yield, now that he had no son to succeed him, and agreed that Henry should have the throne after his death. Not long after Stephen died, and Henry became king, peace was once more restored, and as we shall see, with peace and a strong ruler, the miseries of Stephen's reign came to an end.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CROWN, THE CHURCH, AND THE BARONS.

1. Henry II.—Henry was only twenty-one years of age when he came to the throne; but he was already a statesman and an able ruler. He was a stout, strong man, with red hair and grey eyes; and was so restless and active that he could scarcely find time to eat his meals. He loved order and good government, although his temper which was fiery and passionate, sometimes made him cruel and unjust. He ruled over England, Normandy, and Maine, his grandfather's possessions; and, besides, had Anjou and Touraine from his father, Geoffrey, Count of Anjou; Brittany, through Constance, wife of his brother Geoffrey; and Poitou, Aquitaine, and Gascony by his wife Eleanor, a woman who had been divorced from Louis VII., King of France. Thus Henry ruled over more French territory than the king of France himself. Henry was the first of the Plantagenets, a line of kings whose name arose from the fact that Geoffrey of Anjou, Henry's father, had worn a sprig of broom, *planta genista*, as his device during the crusades. Another name for the same line of kings is the *Angevin*, because they had for their family possession, Anjou.

2 Henry's Reforms.—One of the first things Henry did was to make the barons pull down their castles, so that they could no longer use them as strongholds in which to carry their plunder and



torture their victims. His grandfather, Henry I., had made a beginning in sending out judges on circuit, and Henry II. followed and extended his plan. Judges now made their circuits more regularly, and it was arranged that in each shire there should be four knights, and in each neighbourhood twelve men, who should place before the judges all cases of evil-doing, and should swear to the guilt of the accused, or to the facts about any property in dispute. This was the beginning of the Grand Jury of to-day. The "ordeal" was still in use; but it was abolished forty years later. As the Grand Jury, in many cases, did not know all the facts, the custom was introduced of calling on twelve men, who had the necessary information, to state what they knew about the matters in dispute. This body of twelve was called the "Petty Jury." Its decision as to the guilt or innocence of the accused was called the "*verdict*," which means "*truly said*." So we see that at the outset our juries not only heard the evidence but also acted as witnesses. It was not till many years had passed that the jury ceased to hear the evidence and give the decision.

Henry also lessened the power of the barons by allowing them to pay money to the king instead of giving military service. By this means, and by allowing the small landowners, or yeomanry, to keep arms and defend themselves, he did much to put a stop to such outrages as took place in the reign of Stephen.

3. Henry and the Church.—Henry's love of order and good government led him to try to make the clergy submit to be judged by the ordinary courts of the land. At this time nearly all the men of any education were clerks or clergy, or in some way connected with the church. William I. had granted the clergy their own courts; and when a clerk committed a serious crime he could not be put to death, for the church courts had no power to inflict such a punishment. So it came to pass that a great many crimes like theft and murder were not duly punished, and wicked men escaped very easily, if they in any way belonged to the clergy. Henry tried to change this, and to have but one kind of law for all classes of his subjects.

4. Becket.—As you may think, the clergy were very much against such a step, and Henry thought if Thomas Becket were made Archbishop of Canterbury, his help would enable him to carry

out this reform. Becket had been Henry's bosom friend and his chancellor, or man of business. He was gay, reckless, and extravagant while Henry's chancellor, and Henry thought that if he made him Archbishop he would use his influence with the clergy in favour of Henry's plans. When, however, Becket became Archbishop he changed his habits entirely, and instead of supporting Henry, he upheld the cause of the clergy. Henry was very angry at Becket's conduct, and when Becket refused to be bound by his own signature to the "Constitutions of Clarendon," drawn up in 1164, and making the desired changes, Henry drove him out of the country by the insults and indignities he put upon him.

5. Becket's Murder.—While Becket was absent, Henry persuaded the Archbishop of York to crown his son Henry. This was a new cause for quarrel, for no sooner had Becket returned to England, than he suspended the Archbishop of York for crowning the king's son. Then Henry, who was a man of very violent temper, exclaimed, "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest!" Four knights, who were only too well pleased to have such an excuse, left France, where Henry was, crossed over to England, and murdered Becket in his own cathedral at Canterbury. Henry was very sorry for what his foolish passion had brought about, and immediately sent a messenger to the Pope to say that the murder was committed without his consent. Later on, to satisfy the people who thought a great crime and sin had been committed by murdering a bishop in a church, Henry did penance at Becket's tomb, allowing himself to be scourged on his bare back by the monks.

6. Conquest of Ireland, 1172.—Henry was glad to have an excuse, after Becket's murder, to leave England, and a good one was found in the state of Ireland. This island was inhabited by people of the same race as the Britons, and like England had been troubled with attacks from the Danes, who managed to get a footing on the eastern coast. The Irish people could not wholly drive them out, although they fought many battles with them. These wars had a bad effect on the Irish, for instead of remaining at peace, the Irish chieftains fought against one another with so much ferocity that the civilization and learning that had existed in Ireland before the time of the Danes began to die out. To save the land from disorder and misrule, the Pope gave Henry permission

to conquer Ireland. The opportunity was given when an Irish king, Dermot of Leinster, came over to England to get help against one of his enemies. Henry allowed Richard de Clare, or "Strongbow," to go and to take along with him a small army of Norman adventurers. Strongbow soon defeated Dermot's foes, and marrying Dermot's daughter, settled down as his heir. He conquered so much territory in Leinster that Henry thought it wise to cross over and get him to acknowledge the king as his "lord." This Strongbow did, and Henry received homage from some of the Irish chiefs about Dublin, as well as from Strongbow. This was only the beginning of the conquest of Ireland, for Ireland was not wholly subdued until more than four centuries after.

7. Death of Henry, 1189.—Henry's life was full of trouble. He had trouble with the barons, with the Church, with his wife Eleanor, and with his sons. His wife, who was not kindly treated, stirred up strife and caused his sons to rebel against him. The kings of France and Scotland sought to take advantage of Henry's difficulties to wrest territory from him. But Henry was more than a match for all his enemies. He defeated his sons, took the king of Scotland prisoner, and put Eleanor in confinement during the rest of his life. Two of Henry's sons died, and the remaining two, Richard and John, joined the king of France in an attack on their father's possessions in Touraine. When Henry was shown a list of those trying to injure him, and saw therein the name of his favorite son, John, he cried, "Shame, shame, on a conquered king," and, heart-broken, two days after, died.

8. Richard I., The Lion-Hearted.—Richard, Henry's elder surviving son, succeeded his father. He can scarcely be called a king of England, for during the ten years he held the throne he was not one year in the country. It is doubtful if he understood the English language, or could speak the English tongue. The only use he had for the English people was to supply him with money for his foreign wars and for his crusading adventures. He was a very strong, brave man, and while abroad in the armies of the crusaders performed many remarkable acts of daring and courage. The English had but little reason to love him as a ruler, yet they were proud of his strength, valour, and fame as a warrior. Nevertheless, in some ways, his neglect of his kingly duties,

and his greed for his subjects' money, did good. To get money he sold to many towns and cities the right to govern themselves. In this reign London got its first Lord Mayor, Henry Fitz-Alwyn, A.D. 1191. He also sold offices and honors belonging to the Crown and the Church, and would have sold London could he have found a buyer.

Almost at the beginning of his reign Richard went to the Holy Land to war against the Turks and to take Jerusalem. He left his mother and William Longchamp to govern in his absence. When Longchamp was put aside by the barons in 1191, Richard's brother John sought to rule in his place but was not permitted. Richard, meanwhile, was doing great deeds of valour in the Holy Land, but did not succeed in taking Jerusalem, although once in sight of it. He had for rivals in the crusading armies, Philip of France, and the Duke of Austria, the latter of whom, it is said, he grossly insulted. It happened that Richard, returning from the crusades, fell into the hands of his old-time enemy, and by him was sent a prisoner to the German Emperor. The Emperor would not release him until he had paid a ransom of £100,000, and this large sum (for money was worth a great deal more then than now) the English people had to raise to free their king. John had tried to persuade the Emperor to keep Richard a prisoner, and for this and other acts of treachery Richard, on his return, took away John's castles and lands. Richard now spent a few months in England, collecting all the money he could get to make war against his enemy, Philip of France, and then went to Normandy. He never came back, for while besieging the Castle of Chaluz, an archer took deliberate aim and shot him. Before he died he forgave his slayer, but Richard's followers were more revengeful, and put the poor archer to a very painful death. Thus came to a violent end Richard, Cœur-de-Leon, the hero of many a romantic tale.

9. John, surnamed Sansterre or Lackland.—John, Richard's brother, now came to the throne of England. He is the one king of England about whom no good can be said. Although able, handsome and, when he wished, pleasant and agreeable, he was cruel, licentious, and treacherous. He was chosen king of England over his brother Geoffrey's son, Arthur, a lad twelve years of age; but his claims to his father's French possessions were disputed.

Arthur was the rightful Count of Anjou, and Anjou and Brittany held by him. In the war that followed Arthur was taken prisoner, and no more was heard of him. The rumour spread, and was generally believed, that he was murdered by his uncle; some say, with John's own hands. Philip of France, as John's feudal lord, called upon him to answer the charge of murdering his nephew; and as John paid no attention to the summons, Philip made war upon him and took from him all his possessions north of the Loire. John had now only his mother's lands, Gascony and part of Aquitaine. In this way the kings of England lost Normandy, Maine and Anjou. Now that most of their French possessions were gone, the kings of England paid more attention to the wants and wishes of the English people. English men and English money were not, henceforth, so liable to be taken abroad to be used in their king's foreign quarrels.

10. John quarrels with the Pope.—Not content with murdering his nephew, John must needs plunder and torture his own subjects. No class of his people was free from his insults and outrages. He kept in his pay a large number of foreigners, who fought his battles and helped him to put at defiance his barons. The Church, too, felt his heavy hand, for clergy and laity alike were victims of his greed and brutality. When Hubert, the Archbishop of Canterbury died, some of the monks of Canterbury secretly chose his successor. John, when it came to his ears, was greatly enraged and had another one chosen. The matter came before Pope Innocent III. and he put both choices aside, and induced the monks to elect Stephen Langton, a man of great learning and worth, at that time living at Rome. But John would not allow Langton to come to England. Then in 1208 the Pope placed the land under an "Interdict," that is he forbade the Clergy to marry the people in the Church, or to bury their dead. For four years the churches were closed, and their dead were buried in ditches and fields. But John cared for none of those things. He took his revenge by robbing and murdering the clergy, using for this purpose his hired foreign troops. One outrage followed another until the Pope called upon Philip of France to invade England and take the throne from John. This Philip proceeded to do; but John, at last greatly alarmed, placed his crown and kingdom at the

Pope's feet, promising to be his vassal and pay him a sum of money yearly in token of his supremacy. By this act John put himself under the Pope's protection and Philip had to withdraw. John now felt free to give full vent to all his wicked passions, and the barons were powerless to stop his outrages. Fortunately for them and for England, Langton the new Archbishop, was a true patriot, and determined to do all he could to free the people from John's oppressive rule. The nation now was becoming more united; English and Norman met at the Universities as equals, and in many other ways the old distinctions between the two peoples were fading away. It was well that this was so, for now all classes had to unite against a cruel and tyrannical king.

11. Magna Charta, A.D. 1215.—Langton now became the leader of the barons. He brought forth the charter containing the laws of Henry I., and urged the barons to demand that John should agree to be bound by them. John delayed his consent, hoping to collect his foreign troops, and then crush his opponents. But the barons were much in earnest, and hearing of John's treachery, took up arms, and forced John, who was quite unprepared for a war, to sign the Great Charter, or "Magna Charta." This famous charter was signed at Runnymede on the Thames, on the 15th June, 1215. Most of its provisions were old, and had been in other charters, such as that of Henry I. But the Great Charter is important because it was wrung from an unwilling king, and because it states very clearly and positively the rights of the people. It contains a great many clauses, of which the principal are: *first*, that the king could levy no taxes without the consent of the bishops and the barons; *second*, that no man could be imprisoned, dispossessed of his land, or otherwise punished, without a fair trial by his peers or equals. Its two great principles are the right of the people to control their own taxation, and the right to be free from the king's arbitrary arrest and punishment. It also maintained the freedom of the English Church, and the right of towns and cities to the management of their own affairs.

12. Death of John, 1216.—The Barons were so anxious to have the Charter carried out, that they appointed twenty-five of their own number to watch the king, and if he refused to do as he had promised, they were authorized to seize the king's castles. But John did not intend to keep his word, and putting off the barons with excuses, he managed to get his paid troops together, and then began a civil

war. The barons were not able to cope with him, and called upon Louis, the son of the French king, to come to their aid with an army, and to be their king. Louis landed with a large force, and it looked as if England was once more to be ruled by French kings. Fortunately, John, sorely vexed at losing his baggage, jewels, and crown while crossing the Wash, took ill and died. His son, Henry, a lad nine years old, was chosen by the barons to succeed him.

CHAPTER VII.

DE MONTFORT'S PARLIAMENT.

1. Henry III., A.D. 1216.—Henry III. was chosen king by a few of the barons, although only a child. There was, however, no choice, except between him and the French Prince Louis, then in England with an army. The barons preferred Henry, fearing that Louis would give their lands to his French followers; and Louis, finding that the barons had deserted him, returned to France with his army. As Henry was too young to rule unaided, the governing power was given into the hands of William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke. The Great Charter was again agreed to, but the clause providing for the people's consent to their own taxation was left out.

The Earl of Pembroke died in 1219, and then Peter des Roches, Hubert de Burgh, and Archbishop Langton governed for Henry. In 1227 Henry began to govern for himself, although he kept advisers, and this, some say, marks the beginning of the English "Privy Council."

2. State of the Country.—We must now see how the country and people had prospered since the Norman Conquest. In the time of William I. and his son Rufus, the people suffered at the hands of their kings, through heavy and unjust taxes. Matters were better in the reign of Henry I., although taxes were still very heavy, but better laws were put in force. The reign of Stephen was full of

misery and wretchedness ; but it was followed by the wise and firm rule of Henry II. Henry's sons, Richard and John, governed badly, and the people had to endure heavy taxation and civil war. Highwaymen, like Robin Hood and his companions, infested the woods and roads, robbing and sometimes murdering travellers. Wealthy men, especially abbotts and monks, were the chief victims, for Robin Hood often took money from the rich and gave it to the poor. He thought the rich Normans and monks were oppressing the poor English, so he took this way to make things more equal.

As a rule the harvests were good and food was plentiful. Even laborers had oaten and wheaten bread, barley beer, herrings, and cheese. The yeomanry wove their own clothing, and made their own tools in the winter months. They practised wrestling, archery, and other manly games and sports, and for a more serious pastime attended their manor and other courts, where their local affairs were looked after. In the towns, trade increased, although the king too frequently levied heavy tolls. Fairs were held annually, and at these the people met, bargained, and indulged in games and sports, such as archery, which was encouraged by law. As the king took tolls on all goods sold, he was sometimes tempted, when in want of money, to call a fair when it was not really needed. After Stephen Langton died in 1228, the Pope filled English bishoprics and other good positions in the church with Italian priests. He also sent to England for money to carry on his wars in Italy and elsewhere. The Black Friars and White Friars, men who had made a vow to live a life of poverty, came to England, and went around barefooted and poorly clad, teaching the people. One of these Friars, Roger Bacon, was a great thinker and discoverer in science.

3. Simon de Montfort.—When Henry began to govern alone, it was soon seen how weak he was and how unfitted to rule. Like many other weak men, without intending it, he succeeded in doing a great deal of harm. He was much like Edward the Confessor, fond of architecture and church building, and easily ruled by favourites. Like Edward he brought into the country a host of foreigners who got from his hands the best gifts, lands, houses, offices, and English heiresses. First, he had a swarm of his mother's relations from Poitou ; and then, after his marriage with Eleanor of Provence, another swarm from his wife's native land.

Henry was very extravagant, and to get money had to call together his barons and bishops. These assemblies came to be called Parliaments, from the French *Parler*, to speak. The demands for money came so often, that the barons lost patience, especially as most of the money went to foreigners. At last, Simon de Montfort, although the son of foreign parents and married to the king's sister, determined to check the evils of Henry's weak rule. De Montfort was a man of great ability and moral worth, and was known in his time as Sir Simon the Righteous. A good reason for action was given when it was found that Henry had foolishly squandered a large sum of money in a war in Sicily, for the sole benefit of the Pope. In 1258, Parliament was called at Oxford to raise money to pay the Pope, and the barons came to the meeting armed, and prepared to force the king to accept advisers who would reform the Government. By the "Provisions of Oxford," Henry had to accept a council to advise him; to give back the castles taken from Englishmen; and to hold three Parliaments a year. The king's son, Edward, agreed to these "Provisions," and De Montfort was among the first to give up his castles.

4. De Montfort's Parliament.—But no real improvement was made in the government of the country. Some of the barons were satisfied to get back the castles, and to have the foreign favourites driven out of England, whilst others were jealous of the power and influence of Earl Simon. So in a little while matters were no better than before the "Provisions" were passed, and Henry had recovered nearly all his lost authority. At last, civil war broke out, and Earl Simon, supported by fifteen thousand Londoners, defeated the king at the Battle of Lewes, (A.D. 1264), and took him prisoner. Shortly afterwards, Prince Edward, who played a gallant part in the battle, surrendered himself to the Earl.

De Montfort now ruled for over a year, and in that year made a very important change. Until this time, no one had been summoned by the king to grant money in parliament except the barons, bishops, and great landowners. The people of the towns and cities, and the smaller landowners, were taxed without having any representatives in parliament. In fact, all that parliaments were called for was to get grants of money from the people. Now, however, Earl Simon called a parliament, and among others summoned

two knights from each shire or county, and two citizens from each borough or town. This was the beginning of our modern Parliament, in which there are representatives of all classes of the people. But in Earl Simon's time, and for many years after, bishops, barons, knights, and burgesses, all sat in the same room and voted together; whereas now, they sit in two rooms, or chambers, and vote separately.

5. Death of De Montfort, A.D. 1265.—Not long did Earl Simon hold the reins of power. Simon's sons gave offence, and the barons were jealous of him. Prince Edward, who saw how things were tending, managed to escape from his keepers, and rallying his own and his father's friends around him, was soon at the head of a large force. Simon was not prepared for an attack, and had to take refuge with the Welsh prince Llewellyn. Edward defeated Simon's son at Kenilworth, and then marching with young Simon's banners in front of his army, he was able to come very close upon the Earl before he was aware of the danger. From a church tower at Evesham, in Worcestershire, Simon saw the enemy approaching. "Commend your souls to God," he said to his small force of undisciplined Welsh, "for our bodies are the prince's." In the battle that followed, Sir Simon the Righteous was slain, and his body sadly mutilated. In another year the civil war was over, and then the peace of Kenilworth gave back to the barons their estates, and restored order in the land. Henry III. died in 1272, after a long reign, in which much harm, and some little good was done. He will be remembered by Westminster Abbey, the rebuilding of which he began, and by the fact that in his reign was the first English parliament.

CHAPTER VIII.

STRUGGLE WITH WALES AND SCOTLAND.

1. Edward I.—After the death of Earl Simon and the defeat of the barons, Prince Edward went to the Crusades, and did not return until nearly two years after his father's death. Edward was

one of our best kings. He was a tall and powerful man, a great warrior and statesman—one who loved his people, although sometimes harsh and unjust. He had been a good son, and was an affectionate husband and father. In his reign many wise and good laws were made. From Earl Simon he had learned much, and now when he was made king he put Simon's teachings in force. He began at once to stop the abuses carried on by the barons, who drove the farmers' cattle away without paying for them, and took money from the people unjustly. He had silver halfpennies and farthings made into coins. Before his time the silver penny was made with a deep cut in the shape of a cross, and when a halfpenny or farthing was needed the coin was broken into two or four pieces.

2. Conquest of Wales.—Edward was fond of war, for he was a good general, and loved to do daring deeds and win fame. So we find that he had been king but a short time before he determined to conquer the northern part of Wales. The Britons had by this time lost nearly all the land they held after the English conquest, and now only North Wales remained to them. The kings of England claimed that the Welsh kings should do homage to them, and sometimes they did. But Llewellyn, the Welsh prince of Edward's reign, refused to do homage, and Edward marched into Wales with an army to force him to submit. Llewellyn after a sharp struggle agreed to recognize Edward as his feudal lord. But after four years of submission, the brave and high-spirited prince once more sought to gain his independence. Edward again marched against him, and took a number of Swiss soldiers accustomed to fighting in a hilly country to contend against and pursue Llewellyn in his mountain strongholds. How it would have ended we know not, but Llewellyn was killed in a skirmish and then Wales was conquered. To please the Welsh, Edward gave them his son Edward as their prince. From that time, the eldest son of the sovereign has been called the Prince of Wales.

3. Reform in the Laws.—For nothing in Edward's reign more noted than for its wise laws. The land laws were improved, and a measure was passed to prevent too much land being held by the church or by religious bodies, who gave no feudal service for it. The law courts were now changed. The office of Justiciar was abolished, and instead of one court we have now three: the *King's Bench*, the

Court of Common Pleas, and the *Court of the Exchequer*. Lastly, as the Chancellor heard cases for the king, his court after a time became known as the *Court of Chancery*. But a subject could appeal from any of these courts to the king himself, and by him have his wrongs righted.

4. Expulsion of the Jews.—Edward, however, was not always just to his subjects. One cruel thing he did. In England there were many Jews, the first of whom came over in the time of the Conqueror. They were a peaceable, industrious, and money-making people, but they were very unpopular. This was due, partly to their religion and race, and partly to the dislike of their practice of lending money, and charging high rates of interest thereon. Needy nobles were often glad to borrow from the Jews, and as the latter knew that they were disliked and the debts due to them would not be paid, if payment could be avoided, they charged heavy interest in return for the risk they ran. In these days, it must be remembered, taking interest, or usury, was looked upon as wrong and sinful by many people. The Jews were also accused of clipping coins and other dishonest practices. Edward knew how unpopular these persecuted people were, and, although it was for his own interest to protect them, he banished them from the land. He allowed them to take away their wealth, and England was much poorer in consequence of this cruel deed. From this time until the rule of Oliver Cromwell, nearly four hundred years later, Jews were not allowed to live in England.

5. First full Parliament.—Edward acted more wisely when, following the example of Simon de Montfort, he called a true English Parliament in 1295. Like Simon, he summoned two knights from each shire, and two burgesses (citizens of a town) from each borough, as well as the nobles, bishops, and higher clergy. The nobles and bishops were summoned by name, and the knights and burgesses by the sheriff's writ or command. Edward thought that when all had to pay taxes, it was only right that all should have a voice in granting these taxes; or, as he said, "what concerned all should be approved by all." The elections by which knights and burgesses were sent to Parliament were very different from ours of to-day. Every time Parliament met there was a new election. The people that sent the member had to pay his expenses; and for

that reason, and also because it was known that Parliaments were called only to get money grants, both members and people had but little love for them.

6. War with Scotland.—From these reforms and changes which concerned England alone, we must now turn away to Edward's dealings with Scotland. In 1286, Alexander III., king of Scotland, fell over a precipice and was killed. His grand-child, Margaret, daughter of the king of Norway, was his nearest heir. This little maid was going to Scotland to be made queen, when she died, and the throne was left vacant. There were many claimants among the late king's relations, those having the best claim being John Balliol and Robert Bruce. The Scotch lords could not agree upon a king, and asked Edward to decide. The English kings always claimed to have the supremacy over the Scotch kings; but this claim was not always allowed. Before Edward would consent to decide who should be king, he called the Scotch Parliament together at Northampton, near the border, and made them promise that whoever should be chosen, should give him homage as the feudal lord of Scotland. He then decided in favor of Balliol, who did homage to Edward, and became king of Scotland. Edward was an exacting lord, and wished to have cases, which had been tried before Scotch courts, taken to English courts for final settlement, and this demand the Scotch resented. Very soon Balliol found his position very unpleasant, and taking advantage of a war going on in France between Edward and the French king, threw off Edward's yoke, crossed the border, and ravaged Cumberland.

Edward was now very angry, and marching north with a large force, stormed Berwick, and massacred its inhabitants. He then seized Edinburgh, Stirling, Perth, and Montrose. At Montrose, he took Balliol prisoner, and then appointed an English Council to govern in his stead. To humble the Scotch still more he carried off to England the crown jewels, and the "sacred stone," on which the Scotch kings were wont to be crowned at Scone. This stone, it was said, was the very stone on which Jacob had rested his head at Bethel, when he saw the angels ascending and descending the ladder from heaven. The stone was put into the seat of the royal chair at Westminster Abbey, and on it kings and queens have been crowned to this day. Wherever this stone went, according to a

Scotch prophecy, there would a Scotch king reign; and, so it happened in England, about three hundred years after.

For a time the Scotch submitted to Edward's rule; and then William Wallace, a brave knight, gathered a few faithful and true men together and defeated the English at Lanark, Scone, and other points. His forces having greatly increased, he met the English army at Stirling Bridge, and there won a famous victory. Once more the Scots were free, and Balliol was king, although a prisoner in England.

While these events were taking place in Scotland, Edward was in Flanders, helping the Flemings against the French king. He had troubles on every side: from Ireland, Wales, France, and Scotland; and he was much in need of money. He asked for a large sum from the clergy, but at first they would not give it, until he refused them justice and protection. He laid heavy taxes on his people, and in other ways ruled harshly and unjustly, until Parliament complained and resisted, and then Edward acknowledged he was wrong, and promised he would never more levy money without the consent of Parliament, and that he would always right the grievances of his people before a fresh grant of money was made. This new charter was given in 1297, and is very important.

The next year, having heard what the Scots were doing, he marched north, and defeated Wallace at Falkirk (1298), although the Scots fought bravely against overwhelming numbers. Wallace escaped for the time, but in 1305 was betrayed by his servant into the hands of the English, and was hanged on Tower Hill, in London.

It was not till near the end of Edward's reign that the Scotch again seriously attempted to recover their lost independence. Then Robert Bruce, the grandson of Balliol's rival, escaped from the English court, and going to Scotland, met and killed in a church at Dumfries, his rival and enemy Comyn. Soon Bruce had a band of desperate Scotch nobles around him, and a little later he was crowned at Scone. When Edward, now aged and ill, heard of this new revolt, he hastened to chastise Bruce and the Scotch. Swearing to have his revenge on Comyn's murderer, he travelled slowly northwards. When near the border he sent an army ahead which drove Bruce back to the Grampian Hills. He was busy taking

vengeance on Bruce's supporters when death seized him, at Burgh-on-Sands, A.D., 1307. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Edward Caernarvon, Prince of Wales.

7. Edward II.—The new king had few of his father's great qualities. He was an idle, frivolous youth, fond of gaiety and low companions. He was brave enough when roused; that, however, seldom happened. His father had left him three commands: to subdue Scotland, to send his heart to the Holy Land, and never to bring back Gaveston, a banished and profligate favourite. Not one of these did he carry out. He left the Scotch war to take care of itself, and so Bruce won back nearly all he had lost to Edward I. He buried his father at Westminster, and he recalled Gaveston. Gaveston soon got Edward into trouble by his insolence and wastefulness. He was twice banished, but Edward brought him back. Then Parliament put the government into the hands of a number of bishops and peers, called "Ordainers," who tried to control the King. Once more Gaveston was exiled and recalled, and then the barons took the law into their own hands and beheaded him.

8. Battle of Bannockburn, June 24, 1314.—Bruce in the meantime had been winning town after town from the English, until near all Scotland was in his hands, save Stirling Castle, which was closely pressed. To save this fortress Edward went into Scotland with an army of 100,000 men. He met Bruce with his army of 30,000 Scots at a little stream or *burn* called the Bannock, near Stirling Castle. The battle was fought on June 24th, 1314, and was to determine whether Scotland was to be free or not. Everything seemed in favour of the English, with their large army of brave knights and archers. Bruce, however, had dug pits in the space between his army and the English, and in them had placed sharp stakes, the whole being covered over with turf. The Bannock flowed between the armies and on each side of it was a low boggy piece of land in which horses sank. Bruce knew he had most to fear from the English horsemen, and made his spearmen in the front rank kneel to meet their charge. When the English knights charged the Scots, after the English bowmen had thinned their ranks, their horses plunged into the concealed pits, and floundered in the ooze, and so became an easy prey to the Scotch archers and spearmen.

The English sought a way around this bog and the pits to attack the Scotch ; but at the moment when the Scotch cause was in the greatest danger, a number of camp-followers came over the hills on the Scotch flank, waving their garments and giving utterance to shrill cries. In their confusion the English thought this was a new Scotch army coming to the rescue, and panic-stricken they turned and fled. The battle was won, and Scotland was free.

9. Death of Edward II.—Edward escaped from the battle-field and returned to England, but it had been better for him had he been killed then and there. The rest of his reign is a tale of intrigue, misgovernment, and misery. There was famine in the land, and many died. The king took new favourites, and this led to new quarrels with the nobles. The only good thing to be told is that owing to these quarrels Edward gave the Commons a share in making the laws, as well as a share in paying the taxes. So serious did these quarrels become that Edward's queen, Isabella, turned against him, and went to France, where she carried on a shameful intrigue with Lord Mortimer. In 1326 she came back with a small army, and, being joined by the barons, took the king prisoner, put his favourites to death, and made him agree to give up his crown to his son Edward, a lad of fifteen years of age. Then he was removed from prison to prison and finally to Berkeley Castle, where he was barbarously murdered A.D. 1327.

CHAPTER IX.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR—THE PEASANTS' REVOLT.

1. Edward III.—For four years young Edward was a king in name only, the power being in the hands of his mother and her favourite, Lord Mortimer. Edward was early married to Philippa of Hainault, a noble and brave woman. In 1330, seeing how Mortimer abused his position, he had him seized and put to death. He then began to rule for himself.

Edward III. like his grandfather, Edward I., was fond of war, and tried to bring Scotland under the control of England; but in this he did not succeed, although for a time he placed the son of Balliol on the Scotch throne. His invasion of Scotland led to trouble with Philip VI. of France, who was an ally of the Scotch. Philip attacked Gascony which belonged to Edward, and Edward made this attack, and the French interference with the Flemings, an excuse for beginning a war with France, which lasted on and off nearly one hundred years. The English were very anxious that nothing should stand in the way of their wool trade with Flanders. This trade was a great source of wealth to many English farmers who kept large flocks of sheep and sold their wool to the Flemish manufacturers.

2. Beginning of Hundred Years' War.—Not content with fighting the battles of the Flemings, Edward claimed the crown of France. He said his mother, Isabella, had a better claim to the throne than Philip VI., as she belonged to an elder branch of the French royal family. This claim was worthless, for by French law no person could succeed to the throne through a woman. Edward knew this but he was anxious to win fame and gain territory in France. The English nobles and knights, who were fond of military displays and feats of arms, encouraged Edward in his claims, as it gave them a chance to win renown. It was a sad war for the French peasants and labourers, whose fields and homes were destroyed and burned without mercy by the gay lords and knights. It was also a bad thing for England whose men and money were wasted on a war that could never bring any good to her people.

3. First Campaign.—The war began in 1338, and the first campaign ended in 1347. In 1340, the English won a famous naval victory at Sluys, off the Flemish coast, when thirty thousand French were lost. In 1346, a still more important battle was fought at Crecy, in the north of France. Several things make this battle noteworthy. At it Edward, Prince of Wales (called the Black Prince, on account of the colour of his armour), by his daring and skill, won his knightly spurs—although only a lad of sixteen years of age. At it, too, the English archers proved that they were more than a match for mounted knights clad in heavy armour. Gunpowder is said to have been first used in this battle. Next came

the siege of Calais which lasted nearly a year. When the town was taken in 1347, Edward was so angry at the resistance the inhabitants made that he would have hanged six of the chief citizens who offered themselves with halters around their neck, as a sacrifice for the people, had not Queen Philippa begged their lives, and Edward, to please her, spared them. The French inhabitants were, however, turned out of the city, and English people put in their place, so that the city remained English until retaken by the French in 1558.

4. Second Campaign.—The war began again in 1355. Philip was dead, and John II. was King of France. The Black Prince now led the English, and once more the English archers showed their skill and prowess by defeating a large army, composed of the flower of French chivalry, at the battle of Poitiers in 1356. The English had but 12,000 men to the French 60,000; but the Black Prince drew up his men at the end of a narrow lane among the vineyards and posted his archers so that they could shoot down the French as they came on. Sad havoc was made in the ranks of the knights who fell from their horses, and, cumbered with their armour, could offer but little resistance. King John was taken prisoner and carried to London where he died. To nobles and knights mercy and courtesy were shown; to the poor peasants there came nothing but the ravages and cruelties of a rude soldiery. At last the peace of Bretigny was made in 1360, and Edward gave up his claim to the French crown, keeping, however, Aquitaine, Poitou, Gascony, and Calais.

5. Third Campaign.—What was gained in the second campaign was lost in the third. The Black Prince foolishly plunged into a war in Spain, and the French king, Charles V., took advantage of it to recover his lost territory. Charles would not come to open battle, but harassed the English in every possible way. The Black Prince was ill, and this made him irritable and cruel, so that people turned from him. Finally, he had to return to England, and then the English gradually lost ground until all Edward's gains were gone except Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne. So ended Edward's attempt to win a French kingdom.

6. Rise of the People.—There were, however, some good results of this foolish and costly war. The barons and knights spent a great

deal of money abroad, and much of this money was obtained by leasing their lands for long terms of years. The rent paid was called *feorm*: hence the name of *farm* given to the land thus leased. They also allowed their villeins or serfs to buy their freedom. The king himself raised money by selling to his serfs their freedom.

In this reign an important change took place in the industries of the country. Edward brought over weavers from Flanders, who taught the people to weave their own wool into cloth, instead of sending it abroad to be woven by others and then brought back again to be worn. Trade grew with Normandy, Flanders, and Gascony, in fish and timber, wool and wine, and salt, respectively. Gold coins also came into use, the first being used in 1344. Parliament now began to meet in two separate chambers; the knights and burgesses in one, and the bishops and barons in the other.

7. Statute of Labourers.—In 1348, a great calamity came upon England. This was a dreadful plague, known as the "Black Death," which swept over Europe from the East, and which, it is estimated, destroyed one-half the population of England. The people died so fast that it was difficult for the living to bury the dead. One effect of the plague was that there were not enough people left to till the soil and harvest the crops. Labourers were now in great demand, and, naturally, they asked for higher wages. But the owners of the land made the laws, and they passed the "Statute of Labourers," by which wages were not to be increased. The labourers tried to escape from places where wages were low to where they were high, so it was enacted that a labourer should not leave his own parish. If he did, he was liable to be branded with the letter F (*fugitive*) on his forehead. If a labourer was found unemployed, any land owner could make him work for him. These unjust laws made the people very unhappy and discontented.

8. Chaucer, Langland, and Wiclif.—We see this by the writings of a great poet, Geoffrey Chaucer, who lived at this time. Also in the poem, *The Vision of Piers' Plowman*, by Langland, who wrote for the people, we find this discontent voiced in very plain and bitter words. At this time, too, lived John Wiclif a great religious reformer. Wiclif was a learned clergyman who seeing how the priests neglected their duties wrote against their

greed and hypocrisy. He translated the Bible into English, and sent out "poor priests" to teach the people. His followers were accused of making the people discontented with their condition by pointing out how harshly they were treated.

9. Statute of Kilkenny—1367.—Besides the "Statute of Labourers," many other important measures were passed in this reign. It was enacted that the Pope should not give livings in England to foreigners; that the people should not take questions of law to foreign courts for a decision; and that the English language instead of the French should be used in the courts of law.

Ireland, which was only partly conquered, was treated cruelly and unjustly. In 1367, the Statute of Kilkenny was passed. Its purpose was to prevent the English in Ireland from becoming Irish in language, dress, and customs, and from intermarrying with the Irish. In those days a price was set on an Irishman's head, just as if he were a wolf or a bear. But these laws had very little effect, for most of the descendants of the English that went to Ireland adopted the Irish ways and customs.

10. Last Days of Edward III.—As Edward grew old, his mind gave way, and he passed under the influence of bad advisers and unworthy favourites. Queen Phillipa was dead, and a bold wicked woman, Alice Perrers, gained great control over him. The Black Prince was dying, and this left the chief power in the hands of Edward's third son, John of Gaunt, or Ghent, Duke of Lancaster. His government was not a good one; so, in 1376, Parliament met, and the Commons for the first time *impeached* the king's ministers; that is, had them tried before the House of Lords, who acted as judges. The ministers were removed and Alice Perrers was driven away from the poor old king, but they soon came back again. The Black Prince, who would have governed well had he lived, died in 1376. He left a young son, Richard, a lad of ten years of age, as heir to his grandfather's throne. In 1377, Parliament under the guidance of John of Gaunt, put a poll-tax on the people, that is, a tax of so much a head on every person in the land, over a certain age. Shortly afterwards Edward died (1377) and left his grandson Richard to succeed him.

11. Richard II.—Richard, the son of the Black Prince, came to

the throne when eleven years of age. A council was appointed to help him to rule ; and although not on the council, the king's uncle, J. Gaunt, had great influence. The oppressive poll-tax was again placed on the people, and was made so heavy that great discontent spread among them. Wiclif's followers, the "Lollards," went through the country and helped to make the labourers, villeins, and smaller farmers, more and more restless.

12. Peasant Revolt, 1381.—When a people are in a dissatisfied mood it takes but little to make them do acts of violence. So when a tax collector insulted the daughter of a tiler, her father killed the ruffian. This was a signal for a general rising in Yorkshire, Kent, Essex, and other counties. Wat Tyler headed the men of Kent, and John Ball, one of Wiclif's priests, preached to the angry multitude at Blackheath, asking them the question :

"When Adam dived, and Eve span,
Who then was the gentleman?"

Under Jack Straw, a thatcher, came the men of Essex, armed with scythes, clubs, and other rude weapons. The mob moved on to London, opened the doors of the prison, and burnt and destroyed many buildings. No one among the nobles and ministers seemed to know how to treat these misguided people. The king alone, although a mere lad of sixteen years, kept cool and undismayed. He rode out to meet one body of the rioters, and asked them what they wanted. They asked to be freed from the hated poll-tax, to have the market dues taken off, to be allowed to pay rent instead of working for their lords, and to have the villeins set free. When the king promised to do these things, the people, glad at heart, went home. But while Richard was treating with these men, another body broke into the Tower and murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Treasurer ; while a third body remained under Tyler in London. Richard went out to Tyler's men and sought to quiet them. Tyler placed his hand on the rein of the king's horse, and Walworth, Mayor of London, struck him and killed him. The mob would have killed the king and Walworth had not Richard cried out : "I am your Captain, follow me." The king then led the way, and the crowd followed him quietly outside London. He gave the people written promises to remedy their wrongs, and then they went home. But these promises were never

carried out, for the nobles and land owners collected their men, and went through the country putting many to death. Richard's charters, Parliament said, were no good, and the cruel laws against the poor labourers and villeins were once more put in force. It looked as if nothing had been gained by this rising; nevertheless, shortly after this time the laws were made less severe, and the villeins gradually were given their freedom.

13. Power of Parliament.—The first half of Richard's reign was full of the intrigues of the king's uncles, of whom there were five living, and of the nobles and bishops who made up the king's council. John of Gaunt for awhile had the most influence; but after the Peasant Revolt which shewed the people's dislike of him, he withdrew to Spain for a time. Then another uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, was the chief man. Parliament had much power and could refuse to grant money until grievances were redressed; but it had no power to appoint the king's advisers. Besides, Parliament was much under the control of great nobles, and was often moved by a spirit of faction. In 1387, a Council of Eleven was appointed to look after the king's affairs, and this made Richard very angry. He was not yet strong enough to throw off the yoke of his uncles and rule alone, and had to look on and see some of his dearest friends put to death by his council. He, however, bided his time.

14. Richard's Rule.—Not long after this, in 1389, Richard suddenly announced that he himself would rule in the future, and his council, taken by surprise, gave the reins into his hands. For eight years he ruled well, and many good laws were passed. In 1393, it was enacted that all persons bringing bulls or sentences of excommunication from the Pope into England should lose their property. Richard also visited Ireland, and did something to bring order and good government into that unhappy country.

Well had it been for Richard if he had thus continued to rule wisely. But, in 1397, he began to take his revenge on his uncles and their friends for their treatment of him years before. Gloucester was sent to Calais and was there murdered, while others were either put to death or imprisoned. Now that the chief men were removed, Richard made Parliament do as he wished, and for a time he was an absolute king. He was very fond of dress and

show, and wasted the public money by his foolish extravagance. Some good things he did, but they were done by his own will, and without the people's consent. For that reason they began to hate him.

15. Richard's Fall, 1399.—But the end was near. Among those who had been spared by Richard was his cousin, Henry Bolingbroke, the son of John of Gaunt. Bolingbroke quarrelled with the Duke of Norfolk, and Richard, instead of allowing them to settle the quarrel by a public combat or trial by battle, banished them both; Norfolk for life, and Bolingbroke for six years. The next year old John of Gaunt died, and Richard seized his estates, which rightfully belonged to his son Henry. Then Richard, fearing no harm, went to Ireland. While he was absent, Bolingbroke landed in Yorkshire to recover his father's estates. He was soon joined by great nobles like the Percies of Northumberland, and when, a little later, Richard returned, he found his kingdom was gone from him. Deserted by the people, Richard fell into the hands of Henry and had to resign his crown. The next day Henry was chosen king by Parliament. Of Richard's end we know nothing with certainty, but his body was shown to the people a year later, and it is supposed he was murdered in one of the prisons by order of Henry.

CHAPTER X.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

1. Henry IV.—Henry, son of John of Gaunt, was the first king of the House of Lancaster, so-called from the duchy of Lancaster which he held through his father. Henry's title to the crown was a parliamentary one, for the Earl of March, a grandson of the Duke of Clarence, Edward III.'s second son, had a better claim by birth. Parliament, however, still claimed the right to say who should rule, although it was fast becoming the custom for the eldest son to succeed his father on the throne.

The early years of Henry's reign were full of plots and rebellions. The great nobles, who made Henry king, were not very obedient, and if Henry displeased them, they took up arms against him. First there was a plot to restore Richard, and then Owen Glendower rebelled in Wales. While Henry IV. with the aid of his brave son Henry, Prince of Wales, was trying to subdue Glendower, the two Percies (the Duke of Northumberland and his fiery son, Harry Hotspur), angered because the king had not treated them well in the matter of some prisoners taken from the Scotch, joined the Scots and Glendower against him. A great battle was fought at Shrewsbury, in 1403, in which the king defeated his enemies, and Harry Hotspur was killed. Two years later, Northumberland was killed in battle. Glendower, too, was subdued by the Prince of Wales, and peace once more came to England.

2. Important Measures.—Henry knew that he could not depend on his nobles, and therefore tried to keep on good terms with his parliaments, and with the church. This led to some very important measures being passed. So much money had been spent on the French wars, that the people were now unwilling to give large grants, and Parliament took advantage of the weakness of the king's hold on the throne, to make him do much as they wished. They also forced the House of Lords to give them the sole right to make grants of money to the crown.

This was a step in advance. Not so, however, were the cruel laws against heresy passed to please the church and the great landowners. The church feared the teaching of the Lollards, and the landowners blamed them for stirring up the peasants and villeins to revolt. Both church and landowners were afraid of the people rising and taking away their property. So, in 1401, a law was passed that any one continuing a heretic after due warning should be burnt alive. In February of that year, William Sawtre, a rector of Norfolk, was taken to the stake, and there gave up his life for his belief.

3. Henry V.—Henry's reign was a short one. He died in 1413, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Henry, Prince of Wales. He had other sons, all able men, the ablest being John, Duke of Bedford.

Henry V. was but twenty-five when he came to the throne, and had already earned the reputation of a great general. He is also

said to have been notorious for his wild and reckless doings. Once, we are told, he was sent to prison by Judge Gascoigne, because he behaved insolently to the judge in court. Whatever faults he may have had as a prince, we know that he was on the whole a good king, and much loved by his people. He was too fond of war, and he persecuted the Lollards; these were his chief faults. But he was exceedingly brave, true to his word, and put the good of his people foremost in all his acts.

One very important change he permitted Parliament to make. Henceforth the petitions of the Commons to the king were not to be altered by him before he gave his assent to them. After a petition or *bill* had received the king's assent, it became a *statute* or law.

4. State of the People.—There was but one feeble plot against Henry, so strong was he in the good-will of his people. The nation had recovered somewhat from the Black Death, which again visited it in 1407. Serfs and labourers were gradually gaining their freedom, and the yeoman could now pay rent for his farm instead of giving labour to his lord. That the condition of the labouring class had greatly improved is shown by the laws against extravagance in dress. Trade with other countries was extending, and this led to an increase in shipbuilding. The coal trade of Newcastle was growing, and many merchants were becoming rich.

Against this bright side of the picture we must place the restlessness among the people, the blame of which the Church and the nobles put upon the Lollards. The result was that Henry put in force the laws against heresy, and, among others, Sir John Oldcastle, a leading Lollard, was hanged in chains and burnt.

5. The French War Renewed.—To keep his nobles quiet, and to call away the attention of the people from their grievances, Henry renewed the war with France. There was no good reason for attacking France; but Henry loved war, and his nobles loved plunder. The King of France was insane, and his unhappy country was torn by strife among the great French nobles. The opportunity to recover the lost territory was too good to be neglected, and Henry revived Edward III's claim to the French crown.

In August, 1415, Henry landed in Normandy and laid siege to

Harfleur. It was a terrible siege, and the English lost many men through sickness in the army. Having taken Harfleur, Henry marched toward Calais, and in Oct. 1415, on the plains of Agincourt, with nine thousand men he defeated sixty thousand Frenchmen. It was the battle of Crecy over again; the English archers overthrowing with dreadful slaughter the French knights and nobles. More than one hundred princes and nobles were slain, and eleven thousand men were left dead or dying on the field.

Henry's army was strong enough to win a victory, but not strong enough to conquer and hold the country. So Henry returned to England, and after two years spent in preparation, once more invaded France. He now conquered Normandy, and took Rouen after a siege of six months, in which many women and children died through starvation. Everything at this time favored Henry's designs. The Duke of Burgundy, a French prince who ruled over a large territory, was treacherously murdered by some friends of Charles VI., the French king; and his followers and subjects, in revenge, joined Henry. It was not possible for the French to hold out any longer, and by the Treaty of Troyes, in 1420, Henry married Catharine, the daughter of Charles, and was appointed Regent of France. On the death of Charles, Henry was to become king.

Henry now returned to England full of honors, and his people were proud of his victories. But he did not live long to enjoy his conquests, for in 1422, at the early age of thirty-four, he died, leaving a young son, Henry, only ten months old, to succeed him.

6. Henry VI.—John, Duke of Bedford, was left as guardian of his baby nephew, and was also appointed Regent of France and Protector of England. He was a brave man, and an able general and ruler. He did his work well, and continued his brother's conquests in France. The Duke of Gloucester, Bedford's brother, was left to rule in England, while Bedford was fighting in France. Gloucester quarrelled at home with his uncle Beaufort, the chancellor, and abroad with the Duke of Burgundy, England's best and strongest ally. Bedford, with much difficulty, managed to keep for a time Burgundy on England's side, but after Bedford's death, in 1433, he returned to his allegiance to the French king.

7. Jeanne Darc.—We must now tell the story of the romantic

rescue of France through the efforts of a poor village girl. All France, north of the Loire, was in the hands of the English, and Bedford was closely besieging Orleans. The French people were nearly hopeless, and it seemed but a matter of a few days when Orleans must yield, and with its surrender all hope of saving France from complete conquest would vanish. In a little village in Lorraine lived a young girl of eighteen, Jeanne Darc, the daughter of a labourer. She was very ignorant, and knowing little of courts and camps, but pure and pious. She saw the misery of the land and was filled with a great pity for her country. In visions, she seemed to be told to go to Charles, the son of the French king, and to offer ^{to} crown him at Rheims. Her parents and friends tried to prevent her from going; but her "voices" left her no choice. Guided by a knight, she made her way to the French camp, and told Charles her mission. It was his last hope and he gave her her way. Clad in white armour, and mounted astride of her horse like a man, with the French banner waving over her, she led the rude French soldiery to the relief of Orleans, now on the point of surrendering. The effect was magical. Once more hope burned in the hearts of the French; and the English soldiers looked on in surprise and awe while Jeanne led her troops through their ranks, and entered Orleans. Soon the siege was raised. The English thought her a witch, who put fear in the hearts of their soldiers; while the French hailed her as a messenger from God come to deliver them from their enemies. Jeanne led her soldiers from victory to victory, until her mission was accomplished, and Charles was crowned at Rheims. Then she asked permission to go home; her "voices" had left her, and her work was done. But Charles would not let her go; he feared his soldiers would not fight well under any other leader. Some of the French generals were jealous of her, and at the siege of Compiègne, in 1430, let her fall into the hands of the English. Charles made no effort to save her, and she was taken to Rouen, where she was tried for witchcraft. Condemned in 1431 to be burnt alive, her courage and faith never forsook her. Her last word at the stake, while the flames raged fiercely around her, was "Jesus." Her name yet lives green in the memory of the French people.

8. End of Hundred Years' War.—The war lasted some time

after Jeanne's death, but the English steadily lost ground. Bedford died, and Burgundy went over to the side of Charles VII. Year after year saw new conquests by the French until, in 1453, the war came to an end, and of all Henry V's possessions in France nothing remained to the English but Calais.

9. Weak Rule of Henry VI.—Henry was a feeble king; kind, merciful, and generous; but so weak in intellect that he was wholly unfitted to rule. In the early years of his reign England was distracted by the quarrels of his uncles, of whom Gloucester was the most mischievous and troublesome. Parliament, too, had not so much power as in the days of the Plantagenets, and the right to vote for members was now taken away from many people. Unseemly quarrels often broke out in Parliament; so much so that the members of one Parliament brought cudgels up their sleeves. Later on, when Henry began to rule for himself, he was much influenced by his wife, Margaret of Anjou, a strong-minded woman, who loved power and brought her foreign friends with her. The people cared little who ruled so long as their money was not wasted. This, however, Henry's friends did, and the heavy taxes caused a rebellion.

10. Jack Cade's Rebellion, 1450.—The men of Kent, always among the first to resist, led by Jack Cade, and aided by the men of Surrey and Sussex, came down in large numbers to London, and demanded that their grievances should be righted. We hear nothing of serfdom, or of wages, in their complaints, and this shows what a change for the better had taken place since the days of Wat Tyler. Cade's followers asked for free elections, for a change in the king's advisers, and that the king's foreign favourites should be sent out of England. The rising was soon at an end, and Jack Cade was killed shortly afterwards.

11. Wars of the Roses.—People began now to look to Richard, Duke of York, to right the affairs of the country. Richard was descended on his mother's side from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III., and on his father's side from Edward, Duke of York, fourth son of the same king. He thus had as good a claim to the crown as Henry VI. When Henry, in 1454, became insane, Richard was made Protector. Henry, however, partially recovered, and then he drove the Duke away from his

court. This was too much for York to endure, and he took up arms, claiming the crown as his by right of birth. Then followed a dreadful struggle, which lasted for many years. It is known in history as the Wars of the Roses, because the Lancastrians wore a red rose, while the Yorkists chose a *white* rose. Battle followed battle, sometimes one side being victorious, and sometimes the other. Margaret had to do battle for the rights of her son and husband, for Henry was often insane and always feeble and helpless. In 1454, at St. Albans, the queen's party was defeated by York; and he was again victorious, in 1460, at Northampton. But at a great battle at Wakefield, in December 1460, the Duke of York was killed, and Margaret, in mockery of his claims, had his head, decked with a paper crown, placed on the walls of York city. Then Edward, son of the Duke of York, took up his father's cause. At Mortimer's Cross, in 1461, he defeated the Earl of Pembroke, and marching down to London, was made king. In the same year the rival forces once more met, this time on Towton Field. In this bloody battle 20,000 Lancastrians, and nearly as many Yorkists, were killed, but victorious with Edward IV. Henry and Margaret found a refuge in Scotland, and for a time Edward reigned undisturbed.

CHAPTER XI.

THE HOUSE OF YORK.

1. The Wars of the Roses, Continued.—The Wars of the Roses were not yet over. For ten years more the wretched struggle went on. In 1463, Margaret, aided by the French and the Scotch, sought to recover the throne for her husband and son, but was defeated at Hedgely Moor and Hexham. Then in despair, she fled with her son to Flanders, and Henry VI. fell into the hands of Edward IV., who treated him kindly. Perhaps this would have ended the war had not Edward displeased his most powerful supporter, the Earl of Warwick, by marrying Elizabeth Woodville, the beautiful widow of Sir John Grey. Warwick wished

Edward to marry a French princess, or a daughter of his own. He was angry, also, because Edward began to give good positions to his wife's relations. On the other hand, Warwick's daughter married the Duke of Clarence, Edward's brother, and this displeased Edward.

About this time a rising took place against Edward, which led to the battle of Edgecote (1469), in which many Yorkists were killed. Edward blamed Warwick and proclaimed him a traitor. Warwick thought it wise to leave the country, and he went to France where he met Margaret. Then an agreement was entered into that Margaret's son, Edward, should marry Warwick's daughter, Anne, and that Warwick should aid in placing Henry VI. once more on the throne.

Warwick and Margaret now returned to England, and Edward IV., finding himself unable to withstand them, fled to Flanders. Henry VI. was taken out of the Tower and once more became king. For six months he reigned supported by Warwick the "Kingmaker," then Edward got help from his brother-in-law the Duke of Burgundy, and came back to recover his crown. He met Warwick at Barnet, and defeated and killed him. Then Margaret rallied her friends for the final struggle. At Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire, she was totally defeated, and her son, Edward, was stabbed on the battlefield by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, Edward IV's brother. This battle was fought in 1471, and two weeks later the old king, Henry, died in the Tower, murdered it is thought by the command of Edward IV.

2. The New Monarchy.—And now England for a time had peace, and order was restored in the land. Edward was a handsome man, a good general, and a strong ruler; but he was selfish, cruel, and licentious. His base passions brought shame to many an English household. He loved power, and the people were so well pleased to have a strong government which could keep order, that they let him do much as he liked. Most of the nobles had been killed in the Wars of the Roses, for the war was carried on almost entirely by rival nobles and their personal followers or retainers. The farmers, tradesmen, and merchants had taken no part in the struggle, and went on their way as usual. Nevertheless, the almost constant fighting did much harm to the industries of the

country, and so all classes were glad to have peace restored. This Edward knew, and took advantage of it to demand money from merchants and rich people. This money was at first willingly paid as a "benevolence" or gift, but when the demands became frequent the people began to complain. They, however, could do nothing, as they were without leaders now that most of the nobles were killed, and Edward called his Parliament together only once in eight years. By means of "benevolences" and a pension from France in consideration of not invading that country, together with an income granted early in his reign, Edward could do without parliaments, and so rule absolutely. This way of ruling was a new thing in England, and it continued through several reigns. To distinguish it from the rule of the Plantagenets and the House of Lancaster it is known as the "New Monarchy."

3. Caxton.—Edward's love of power and his fear of treason led him to do many cruel things. He had his brother Clarence impeached and put to death. Clarence was fond of Malmsey wine, and Edward, in mockery of his taste, had him drowned in a butt of his favorite beverage.

It is pleasant to turn away from these quarrels between the King and his nobles, to Edward's encouragement of William Caxton, the first English printer. Caxton was a native of Kent, who had gone to Flanders in his youth, where he learned the art of printing. In 1476 he came back to England with the first printing press, and opened a little shop near Westminster, where he advertised that he would do printing "right chepe." Edward, Gloucester, and many nobles patronized him. He printed service books for the clergy, and histories of chivalry for the knights. The first book printed (1477) was the *Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*. He not only printed books but translated them from foreign languages. Books before his time were very dear and little read, for new copies had all to be written out by hand. Henceforth many could afford to buy books, and this helped to spread education among the people.

4. Edward V.—Edward IV., worn out by his vices, died in 1483, and at once a struggle for power began between the queen and her friends on the one hand, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and his followers on the other. Richard said that Edward, Prince of Wales, and Richard, Duke of York, the sons of Edward, were not

legitimate, because their father had been betrothed to another woman before he married their mother, Elizabeth Woodville. But before he put forward his own claim he seized young Edward, and after a short time placed him in the palace in the Tower. Richard was appointed Protector, and the queen and her second son took refuge in the sanctuary at Westminster. Richard forced the queen to give up the Duke of York, and he was placed in the Tower with his brother. Then Richard suddenly turned on his former friend, Lord Hastings, and charging him in the Council with plotting against him, called in his men, who hurried Hastings out and beheaded him on a log of timber near at hand. A few days later Richard caused himself to be proclaimed King, on the ground that Edward V. and his brother were illegitimate.

5. Richard III.—Richard began his reign with the execution of Earl Rivers and Sir Richard Grey, uncle and half-brother of Edward V. This he followed up with the murder of his nephews in the Tower. It was said that he caused them to be smothered, while sleeping, with pillows. Richard III. was a brave man, a great warrior, and in some respects a good king. His enemies described him as deformed and repulsive, and called him the "Hunchback." His deformity consisted in one shoulder being somewhat higher than the other, and in one arm being partially shrunken. He had a thoughtful, delicate countenance, with good manners and tastes. If one half the stories told about him are true, he must have been very cruel. We must, however, remember that these tales are told by the enemies of his family.

Richard tried to rule well, passing a law against "benevolences," protecting commerce, and summoning parliaments. Nevertheless he was hated for his murder of his nephews, and his own peace of mind had departed with the cruel deed. Soon plots began to be formed against him, and the Duke of Buckingham, for taking part in one of them, was beheaded. Richard continued to rule till 1485, when Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond, a descendant of John of Gaunt, on his mother's side, and Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman on his father's side, landed at Milford Haven in Pembrokeshire, and claimed the crown. His title was a very weak one, but the Lancastrians joined him, and so did the Welsh, also many of Richard's most powerful subjects. Richard hastened to meet him.

and the opposing armies met on Bosworth Field. When the battle began, Lord Stanley and Earl Percy deserted Richard, but, true to the last, rushed into the thickest of the fight, eager to exchange blows with his rival. He was soon stricken down, and died on the field. His crown was found in a hawthorn bush, and placed by Stanley on Henry's head.

With the Battle of Bosworth Field, in 1485, ended the Wars of the Roses. With it, too, began the famous line of kings and queens known as the House of Tudor. Henry VII., soon after his coronation, married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., and although the marriage was not a happy one, it united in the reigning family the claims of both the Lancastrians and Yorkists, and so helped to bring peace to the distracted nation.

6. End of Mediæval History.—With the reign of Henry VII., we pass into modern history. A great change now began to come over the people of Europe. Their knowledge of the earth was greatly increased by the discovery of America by Columbus, and by the many voyages to the new world that followed. Navigators made their way to India by sailing round the Cape of Good Hope. The knowledge of other planets was now extended by great scientific discoveries; and men's minds were aroused by the study of Greek literature, the "New Learning," brought to Italy from Constantinople by exiles from that city. The printing press was doing its work in making books cheap and thus spreading knowledge. But with all these changes for the better there was also the growth of the power of kingship. Nearly all the nobles had been killed in the Wars of the Roses, and the middle and lower classes had not yet learned to fight their own political battles. Gunpowder had come into use, and as the king had nearly all the cannon, he could batter down the strong walls of the castles of the nobles, and so keep them in subjection. So for several reigns we shall find that there was very little control over the king.

CHAPTER XII.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.—THE REFORMATION.

1. **Henry VII.**—The first king of the House of Tudor was a cautious, intelligent man, with little love for anything or anybody but himself. In France he had studied the methods of foreign kings in ruling without parliaments, and when he became king of England he tried to get as much power as he could. He saw that the best way to do this was to lessen the power and influence of the few nobles left after the Wars of the Roses, and to gather as much money as possible, so that he could do without parliaments. To break down the power of the nobles, he had a law passed against *liveries* and *maintenance*; that is, a law forbidding nobles to keep more than a certain number of men in *livery* or *uniform*. He knew that these men would, if occasion arose, take up arms against the king in the interests of their lords. The law was strictly put in force; and Henry went so far as to have his friend, the Earl of Oxford, fined £10,000, because when Henry visited him, Oxford, to do the King honor when he left his castle, drew up in line a large number of men in livery. Henry had a court formed of some of the leading men in his Privy Council, to punish powerful offenders for breaches of the law. The ordinary courts did not dare to put the law in force against great nobles, who with their retainers, overawed judges and juries. This new court was called the "Court of the Star Chamber," because it met in a room whose ceiling had star-like decorations. For a time it did good service in punishing men for such offences as maintenance, forgery, and breach of the peace. It however, became a very tyrannical body, and took away from the ordinary courts many of their rightful duties.

Henry also revived Edward IV.'s practice of raising money by "benevolences" or forced gifts. Cardinal Morton was the chief instrument he used for this purpose. If a man made a great show of wealth, the Cardinal told him he certainly must be able to give a rich gift to the king. On the other hand, if he lived in a poor house, and kept few servants, he was told that since he lived so frugally he must be hoarding money, and therefore was well able

to grant the king a goodly sum. This artifice was known as "Morton's fork," for if a man escaped one tine of the fork, he would certainly be caught on the other. Henry also took advantage of the confusion due to the civil wars, and of the defects in titles of property, to seize the estates of landowners, or else make them pay heavily to keep them. By such means and by forcing the French king to pay him a large sum to withdraw his troops from Boulogne, Henry gathered so much wealth that when he died he left nearly £2,000,000 in his treasury.

2. Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck.—Although Henry had married Elizabeth of York in the hope of satisfying the Yorkists, there were still many who were dissatisfied with his rule. Henry had taken the precaution to put in the Tower the Earl of Warwick, the son of the Duke of Clarence, Edward IV's brother. This, however, did not prevent an impostor, Lambert Simnel, from coming forward as the Earl of Warwick, and claiming the throne. He found many Yorkists ready to support him, but in a battle at Stoke, Simnel was defeated, and being taken prisoner was made a scullion in the King's kitchen.

A more serious rebellion arose when Perkin Warbeck, a native of Tournay, claimed the crown as Richard, Duke of York, second son of Edward IV. The Yorkists said this boy had escaped when his brother Edward V. was murdered in the Tower. A great many believed that Warbeck was the Duke of York. The kings of France and Scotland acknowledged his claim; the latter, James IV., going so far as to give him in marriage his cousin, the beautiful Catharine Gordon, the "White Rose of Scotland." James, also, helped him to invade England in 1496; but the invasion failed, and Perkin went to Ireland. Thence he made another attempt to get a footing in England, this time in Cornwall. His courage, however, failed as Henry's army approached, and he tried to escape. He was taken prisoner, put in the Tower, and a few years later, with Warwick, was executed.

3. Foreign Alliances.—Henry saw that the kings of France, Aragon, and other nations had much power over their subjects, and he sought to secure their support by making alliances with them. His elder daughter, Margaret, he gave in marriage to James IV. of Scotland, to keep that country from molesting his northern frontier.

Then to secure the friendship of Ferdinand, the crafty king of Aragon, he arranged that his elder son, Arthur, should marry Katharine, Ferdinand's daughter. Arthur died a few months after the marriage, and then, Henry and Ferdinand, not to lose the benefit of the alliance, got the Pope's consent to Katharine marrying Henry, Arthur's brother, a lad six years younger than his bride.

4. Other Important Events of Henry VII's reign.—In this reign an important law affecting Ireland was passed. This was Poyning's Act (1497) which said that English laws should have force in Ireland, and that the Irish Parliament should not make any new law without the consent of the King's Council. We must remember that only a small portion of Ireland along the Eastern coast, called the "Pale," was much under the control of the English at this time. The greater portion of Ireland was still unconquered, and was ruled by Irish chieftains.

In this reign, too, Columbus discovered America (1492); and the Cabots, John and Sebastian, sailed from Bristol and discovered Newfoundland and Labrador. About the same time Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese, made the first voyage to India from Europe around the Cape of Good Hope.

Not less important than these discoveries was the learning brought to Italy, and thence to England, by the Greeks who fled from Constantinople when that city was taken by the Turks in 1453. English students went to Italy to study Greek literature, and returning introduced the study of Greek into the great English Universities, Oxford and Cambridge. The New Testament was now read in Greek, whereas formerly it was read in Latin only. Among the great scholars of this time who loved this "New Learning" were Colet, Erasmus, and Sir Thomas More.

5. Henry VIII.—Henry VII. died in 1509, and was succeeded by his only surviving son, Henry, a young man of eighteen years of age. Besides Henry there were two daughters, Margaret, married to James IV. of Scotland, and Mary, who married, first, Louis XII., the aged king of France, and after his death, the Duke of Suffolk. The descendants of these princesses were to play an important part in English history.

Henry VIII. was a handsome youth, fond of pleasure and out.

door sports, and frank and hearty in his manner. He was well-educated and an excellent musician ; but withal, vain, self-willed, and extravagant. His selfishness grew with his years until all the good qualities of his youth were lost. Nevertheless, outside of his own court, the people loved him and "Bluff King Hal" was to the very last popular in England. Henry's first acts as king were for the good of the country. He encouraged ship-building, established dock-yards, and punished the miserable instruments of his father's exactions.

6. Foreign Wars.—Henry loved display and flattery, and he longed to play a great part in European politics. At that time France and Spain were the most powerful nations in Europe, and a keen rivalry existed between them. Henry was anxious to hold the balance of power, and much of his reign is taken up with the intrigues of the French and Spanish kings to win his favour. Almost at the beginning of the reign, he joined Spain and Germany in a war to defend the Pope against France. He accomplished nothing, however, beyond wasting the treasure his father had so carefully stored up for him.

A more successful war was carried on against Scotland, whose king, James IV., to help his ally, the King of France, attacked England in 1513. He was met at Flodden Field by the Earl of Surrey, and, with many of his nobles and knights, killed. This was not the only war with Scotland in this reign, for in 1542, James V. the nephew of Henry, attacked England ; but like his father, he met with a disastrous defeat.

7. Wolsey.—During many years Henry was much guided by Thomas Wolsey. Wolsey had risen step by step by humoring the king and falling in with his pleasures till he became Chancellor, or chief law officer, Archbishop of York, papal legate, and a Cardinal of the Church. He was a man of great ability and shrewdness, strongly attached to Henry, and desirous of making him all-powerful ; but at the same time vain, proud, and fond of money and show. Wolsey was a friend of the "New Learning" and showed his interest in education by founding a college at Oxford. He, however, tried to rule without parliaments, and to fill the king's treasury by fines and forced loans. Wolsey himself grew

rich and built great palaces, Whitehall and Hampton Court, with money given by the king.

In his dealings with the courts of Spain and France, Wolsey sought to gratify his own ambition. At this time Charles V., Emperor of Germany and King of Spain, was the strongest ruler in Europe. He was the nephew of Henry's queen, Katharine, and Wolsey hoped through his influence to become Pope. For this reason, he for a time kept Henry on the side of Charles in his contests with Francis I. of France, for the chief power in Europe. Wolsey, however, was not appointed Pope, and then he encouraged Henry to make friends with Francis against Charles. This displeased the English people, for Charles was the ruler of Flanders, and they did not want their trade with that country injured.

8. Fall of Wolsey.—In the meantime, Henry, who had been married eighteen years, grew tired of Katharine and wanted to marry Anne Boleyn, a young and beautiful maid of honour at the court. Henry pretended to think he had done wrong in marrying his brother's widow, and found in this an explanation why all his children had died in infancy except the Princess Mary. He now asked the Pope to grant him a divorce from Katharine, and expected his request would be granted, as he had written in defence of the Roman Catholic religion against the German reformer, Luther, and had received from the Pope the title, "Defender of the Faith," a title still borne by the monarchs of England. The Pope sent Cardinal Campeggio to England to inquire into the matter, and he tried to persuade Katharine to go into a nunnery. This Katharine would not do, but stood firm for her own rights and those of her child. Wolsey and Campeggio heard Katharine's plea for justice and mercy, but came to no decision. The case was left in the hands of the Pope, who called upon Henry to go to Rome, and there have the case decided. Henry knew what the decision would be and he refused to go to Rome. Wolsey was known to favour a marriage between the King and a French princess, and Anne Boleyn found no difficulty in persuading Henry that the reason why the divorce was not granted was his hostility. Seeing Henry's change of feeling, Wolsey made haste to win his favour by giving him his palaces and by retiring to York. Sir Thomas More now became Chancellor. But Wolsey's enemies were active,

and induced Henry to have him arrested for high treason, because he had broken a law made in the reign of Edward III. and Richard II., against bringing any foreign authority into the realm. This Wolsey had done by acting as papal legate, and by holding a court for the Pope in England. Broken-hearted at the loss of the King's favour, Wolsey began his journey to London. When he reached Leicester he was so ill that he had to take shelter in the Abbey there. "Had I served my God as diligently as I have served the King," he said to the lieutenant of the Tower, "He would not have given me over in my gray hairs." His sickness was unto death, and the man who had served the king so faithfully, and loved him so truly, only escaped the penalty of treason by dying Nov. 30th, 1530.

9. Act of Supremacy.—Henry found a new and able minister in Thomas Cromwell, one of Wolsey's retainers. He advised the King to make himself Head of the Church, and then procure a divorce from his own courts. At first Henry did not like to act on this advice, but when he found that it was the only way by which he could marry Anne Boleyn, he determined to carry out Cromwell's suggestion. Parliament was called in 1529, and because it was willing to do the king's bidding it lasted for seven years. During its existence many important laws were passed, mostly at the command of Cromwell and Henry.

Henry's first step in throwing off the Pope's authority over the English Church was to force the clergy to acknowledge him "Head of the Church," by threatening them with the loss of their goods and lives for having recognized the authority of Wolsey as papal legate. The clergy agreed to this with the limitation, "so far as the laws of Christ permit." Then Parliament passed three laws, one of which forbade the clergy from sending "first fruits" to Rome; a second, forbade the taking of appeals to Rome; and the third, called the "Act of Supremacy," made Henry "Head of the Church." The latter Act was passed in 1534.

Before this, however, in 1533, Cranmer, who had been made Archbishop of Canterbury, granted in the council of bishops the coveted divorce, and Henry immediately married Anne Boleyn. In the same year Anne's daughter, Elizabeth, was born. Parliament, to please Henry, declared the Princess Mary illegitimate, and settled the succession on Anne's children.

10. Cromwell's Rule.—Cromwell and Cranmer were now Henry's chief advisers. Cromwell was a stern man, and had been employed by Wolsey to suppress some of the smaller monasteries on account of the evil lives of their inmates. Now that he was the king's minister he bent all his energies to make him an absolute ruler in both Church and State. Parliament was forced to pass the most infamous laws. One of these forbade people accused of treason the right to be heard in their own defence. Cromwell himself was the first to suffer under this wicked law. He also employed spies to let him know what the people were doing and saying; and by telling the king tales of plots against his life, made him cruel and unjust. None were too good, or too high in rank, to escape Cromwell's vengeance, if he thought by taking their lives the king's power would be increased. He had an Act passed by which any man might be called upon to take an oath that he believed the divorce was right and valid. Among those who were asked to take the oath was Sir Thomas More, the king's Chancellor, and at one time the king's trusted favourite. More was a great and pure-minded man, perhaps the greatest in his day, and had written a book called "Utopia" in which he advocated many reforms, for which the labouring men of England had to wait centuries. Now when asked to swear that he believed that the divorce was right and to accept the Supremacy he refused. He was sent to the Tower, and later on, with Bishop Fisher, was beheaded. He died as he had lived, bravely and cheerfully.

11. State of the People.—These were sad days for the poor of England, and for those who could not make their consciences bend to the king's tyranny. Much land had gone out of cultivation, as landowners had found it more profitable to raise sheep than to till the soil. Landowners, too, were enclosing the *common land*, and thus taking away from the poor one means of making a livelihood. The retainers of the nobles were now cast adrift, and, with other men out of work, took to robbing and plundering. As the punishment for theft and robbery was death, many criminals, to escape detection, murdered their victims.

The minds of the people were unsettled by the religious changes going on in Europe. Martin Luther, a German priest, had begun to write and preach against some of the practices and doctrines of

the Roman Catholic Church. He soon had many followers in Germany. The movement spread rapidly, and the *Protestants* (as they were called in 1529) became numerous in Switzerland, Germany, Scotland, France, and other countries. In England they were few in number, until Henry broke away from the Pope; after that many began to follow Luther's teachings. Henry himself did not believe all that Luther taught: he still clung to many of the beliefs of the Roman Catholic Church. With the help of Cranmer and others he drew up the ten Articles of Belief for the English Church which were accepted by the Convocation of the clergy. He also allowed the Bible to be translated into English and read in the churches. Both Cromwell and Cranmer were prepared to go much further than Henry in making religious changes. The monasteries had much wealth, and some of the monks in the smaller ones were ignorant and licentious. Cromwell and the King made this an excuse for destroying many of the monasteries, and for seizing their lands and money. Henry gave away much of this spoil to his nobles and favourites: the rest he put in his own treasury. One effect of this spoliation was that now there were no places where the poor could be fed and sheltered, or nursed when sick. Another was the arousing of a strong feeling of discontent in the north and west, where the adherents of the Roman Catholic faith were very numerous. A rebellion, known as "The Pilgrimage of Grace," broke out to restore the old religion and to get rid of Cromwell. Henry promised to remove their grievances, and the rebellion came to an end; but after the rebels had gone home, troops were sent among them, and their leaders were put to death.

12. Death of Cromwell.—Meanwhile, a sad fate had befallen Anne Boleyn. The crown she so eagerly coveted was not long in her possession. Gay, frivolous, fond of pleasure and admiration, her levity excited Henry's jealousy. At last, in 1536, he accused her of unfaithfulness, and had her executed. The next day, Henry married Jane Seymour, a young lady at court. It was now the turn of Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, to be declared illegitimate by Parliament.

Jane Seymour died in 1537, leaving an infant son, Edward. She had been a Protestant, and her brother, the Earl of Hertford, was also a Protestant. He soon became the leader of the *Protestant* party at court, while the Duke of Norfolk and his son, Earl Surrey,

were at the head of the *Roman Catholic* party. Cromwell, to strengthen the Protestant cause, made a match between Henry and the Princess Anne of Cleves, a German Protestant. In this way he hoped to bring the Protestant States of Germany into a closer alliance with England. Anne was very awkward and homely, and Henry, as soon as he saw her, took a strong dislike to her. In a few months he had put her away by a divorce, and had made Cromwell feel the fierceness of his disappointment and anger. Cromwell had so many enemies in the King's council, that he knew his fate was sealed when the King deserted him. Charged with treason, he flung his cap on the ground, exclaiming, "This, then, is the guerdon for the services I have done." He was at once attainted, and without being given a chance of making a defence, was hurried to the block.

13. Last Days of Henry.—Twice more was Henry married. His fifth wife was a beautiful girl, Catharine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk. In a little while she was shown to have been unchaste before her marriage, and, like Anne Boleyn, she was beheaded. Then he married Katharine Parr, a widow, who by her tact managed to outlive him.

Meantime, a great change had come over Henry since his accession. The joyous, frank, handsome young king, had become cold, selfish, suspicious, and cruel. His very form had changed; he was now coarse, unwieldy, and disfigured by a grossness that was repulsive and disgusting. His temper was so uncertain, and he changed his views so often, that his subjects seldom knew what they were expected to do or believe. When the Duke of Norfolk was in his favor, laws were passed against Protestants; and when Cromwell and Cranmer guided him, laws were passed against Roman Catholics. So we find in this reign men and women executed, some because they did not believe Henry's Protestant opinions, others because they were opposed to the Roman Catholic creed, part of which Henry retained in his laws. Towards the close of his reign the Earl of Hertford, Jane Seymour's brother, had great influence, and he induced the king to put Norfolk's son, the accomplished Surrey, to death. Norfolk himself was sent to the Tower and would have lost his head, had not Henry, to the great relief of his court, died in 1547.

Parliament had given Henry great power, and among other things allowed him to name in his will who should succeed him. He seemed to have repented of his unjust treatment of the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth, for while leaving the crown to his son Edward, he named Mary as Edward's successor in case he died without heirs; while Elizabeth in turn was to follow Mary. In case all of Henry's children died without heirs, then the descendants of Henry's younger sister Mary were to succeed. Thus we see that the Scotch descendants of Margaret, the elder sister, were left out of the line of succession.

CHAPTER XIII.

RELIGIOUS STRUGGLES.

1. Edward VI.—Edward was a delicate boy of ten years of age when his father left him the crown. He was unusually bright and clever, and had been carefully educated. His mother and his mother's family were Protestants, and Edward himself had been trained under Protestant tutors; so it is not surprising that he was a very strong believer in the Protestant religion. He is said to have been self-willed, like his father, although he seems to have been also very conscientious.

Henry had left a Council of Regency to assist Edward in governing, the chief members of which were the king's uncle, Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, and Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury. Somerset soon persuaded Edward to make him Protector, and this gave him great power. Somerset was a well-meaning man, who pitied the sad condition of the people; but at the same time was too anxious to force the Protestant religion on the nation, and too much in haste to grow rich at the public expense.

Almost the first thing done in this reign was to make changes in the form of worship, and as far as possible in the belief of the people. Images were removed from the churches, mass was abolished, and the Church Service read in English, instead of in Latin. The fierce laws of Henry IV. and V. against the Lollards

were repealed, so also were the laws of Henry VIII. against Protestants. Priests were allowed to marry, churches were despoiled of their lands to satisfy the greed of the nobles, and Acts of Uniformity were passed to force everybody to accept the new form of worship. Most important of all was the drawing up of the "Book of Common Prayer," (much of which was a translation from the older Latin services) which stated how the people were to worship. Articles of Religion were also set forth to guide the teaching of the clergy. With a few slight changes the doctrines and ritual of the English Church of to-day are the same as those prescribed in the days of Cranmer and Edward VI.

2. Popular Discontent.—These changes were made before the people were prepared to receive them. In London and some of the large towns there were many Protestants; but, in the country districts, while many did not wish to have the Pope interfere in the affairs of England, the people wished the Church services and other parts of religion to remain unchanged. So Somerset and Cranmer in their zeal made the people dissatisfied, and this discontent was increased by the laws allowing landowners to take the common lands from the poor, and by the want of employment due to changes (already explained) in the method of farming. To these causes must be added the greed for plunder and for Church lands of Somerset and his friends. Somerset began to build a great palace in London, and to make room for it had to pull down churches and houses. The money for this mansion was really taken from the people. Then, we find that in Henry VIII.'s reign the practice was begun of debasing the public coin, that is, more base metal was put into the silver coin than should be there. By this means the poor were cheated out of their earnings, and the public treasury was filled at their expense. All these evils led to risings in different parts of the country, the most serious of which was one under Ket, a tanner, in Norfolk. With 20,000 men, Ket defeated the King's troops, and asked for a removal of the evils from which the people suffered. Somerset felt for the oppressed and did not like to use harsh means against the rebels; and so it fell to Lord Warwick to crush the rebellion by hired troops from Germany. Somerset's weakness and his love of power led to his downfall. Warwick was ambitious, and he induced the Council to force Somerset to resign the Protectorship. But Warwick was afraid that Somerset might recover his lost authority, and

three years later had him charged with treason and executed. The throng that looked on at his death showed their sympathy with the fallen and well meaning Protector by dipping their handkerchiefs in his blood, as that of a martyr.

Warwick now became Protector, and like Somerset he favoured the Protestants. Gardiner and Bonner, two bishops who were opposed to further religious change, were imprisoned, and Ponet and Ridley, two Protestants, were appointed in their places. Roman Catholics were persecuted because they would not attend the new form of public worship, although we do not hear of any being put to death.

3. Last Days of Edward VI.—There is, however, one bright spot in the dark picture of this time. A great interest was beginning to be felt in education. In this reign eighteen grammar schools were founded, and the Blue Coat School was started by Edward himself in 1553, for orphans and foundlings.

Edward's reign lasted only six years. Always a delicate lad, his friends saw that as the years passed consumption had seized him, and that his reign would soon be over. Warwick, (now Duke of Northumberland), and Cranmer, dreaded the succession of Mary, Edward's sister. Mary was so strict a Roman Catholic that she had been kept under watch for some time in Hertfordshire. With Mary on the throne, the Roman Catholic religion would be restored, and Northumberland's power would be gone. To prevent this, Northumberland persuaded Edward to leave the crown to Lady Jane Grey, the granddaughter of Mary, Henry VIII.'s sister. Lady Jane, although only a girl of sixteen, had been married to Guildford Dudley, Northumberland's son, a short time before, and as she was a strong Protestant, Northumberland hoped through her to continue to rule. In July of 1553 Edward died.

4. Mary.—Immediately on Edward's death Northumberland and his friends offered the crown to Lady Jane Grey, who accepted it very reluctantly. Steps were taken to seize Mary, but, warned by secret friends, she escaped to the Duke of Norfolk. The people were much displeased at the plot to put Mary aside, and joined her in great numbers. Soon she was strong enough to move on to London, where she received a hearty welcome. So strong was the feeling in her favour, that Northumberland, who had gone to Cambridge, thought it prudent to throw up his cap for her. This

pretence of loyalty deceived no one, and Northumberland was arrested and put to death for treason. Lady Jane Grey and her husband were thrown into prison, there to await Mary's decision. Cranmer who had consented to the plot against Mary was also imprisoned.

Mary was now Queen, with the consent of nearly all her subjects. For many years her life had been a bitter one. Her mother had been divorced and she herself disgraced by Act of Parliament. She had been kept under constant watch during Edward's reign, because it was known that she loved her mother's people, the Spaniards, and her mother's religion. She thus, true to her Spanish nature, came to hate her mother's enemies, and the enemies of her mother's faith. The bitterness due to ill-treatment was aggravated by ill-health, neglect, and a temper naturally harsh. At her accession she was thirty-seven years of age, small of feature and stature, with dark eyes full of fire, and a harsh man-like voice. Like all the Tudors, she was brave and self-willed to a fault.

5. Wyatt's Rebellion.—Her first acts were to restore the Roman Catholic religion and form of worship, and throw into prison the Protestant bishops. She released Gardiner and Bonner, and made the first her Chancellor, and the second, Bishop of London. Most of the people were pleased to have the old form of worship restored, but not so anxious to have the Pope's authority over England brought back. However, she induced Parliament to allow Cardinal Pole, her cousin, to go to Westminster where, in the name of the Pope, he pardoned the nation through its representatives in Parliament, for its heresies in the two previous reigns. Parliament was willing to accept the Pope's pardon; but, when a demand was made for a restoration of Church property, the members, many of whom had been enriched out of its spoils, promptly declared they would not give up the Church lands held by them. Mary herself did what she could to restore the property taken from the Church by the Crown.

Mary was anxious to strengthen the Roman Catholic cause in England by the aid of Spain. Partly because she had this end in view, and partly because she loved her cousin Philip, son of Charles V., and now king of Spain, she listened eagerly to a proposal to marry him. When it was rumoured that Mary was going to

marry the king of Spain, great alarm was felt by the people. Some were afraid of the Spanish Inquisition, which under Philip was doing terrible work in Flanders, while others were afraid that England, thus brought so close to Spain, would lose her independence, Spain being at that time the greatest nation in the world. Risings took place in many counties, and the men of Kent, under the brave soldier and accomplished scholar, Sir Thomas Wyatt, marched down to seize London, and to put Elizabeth, Mary's sister, on the throne. So strong was the feeling in favour of Wyatt, that Mary was urged to escape. Instead of that, however, she rode forth and called upon the people of London to rally round their queen, promising not to marry without her Parliament's consent. Her courage aroused her subjects, and when Wyatt, worn out with travel and fatigue, reached Temple Bar, London's gate, he found it closed and London guarded by a large force. His followers were scattered, and with many others he was taken prisoner and executed.

Mary now thought it unsafe to allow Lady Jane Grey to live. On the 12th Feb., 1554, Lady Jane sat at her window and saw the bleeding body of her husband brought back from the scaffold, and then calmly went forth to the executioner's block. Elizabeth, it is said, had a narrow escape, her life being spared through the influence of Gardiner and Philip of Spain. She was, however, closely watched all through Mary's reign.

The rebellion being ended and the rebels punished, Mary married Philip. The marriage was not a happy one. Philip remained in England a year hoping to have a son, but was disappointed. He was also annoyed because Parliament under Gardiner's guidance would not allow him to take the title of king, nor would it allow England to take any part in Spanish wars. So Philip left England and did not return till 1557. His coldness grieved Mary and made her still more bitter towards her enemies.

6. Persecution of the Protestants.—Mary, in her mistaken zeal for her religion, now began to put to death those who did not believe as she did. Rowland Taylor, an aged and much loved vicar, was sent to the stake amid the tears of his parishioners. Then came in rapid succession, Rogers, a canon; Hooper, a bishop; Latimer, the bold, outspoken preacher of righteousness; and Ridley, a gentle and devout man. Latimer and Ridley were burned at Oxford, tied

back to back to the same stake. "Play the man, Master Ridley," said Latimer, "we shall this day light such a candle in England as by the grace of God shall never be put out." Then came the most noted of all the victims, Cranmer, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Cranmer had taken a leading part in all the changes in religion made in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and he had also been party to the plan to put Lady Jane Grey on the throne. He was now called to answer for his deeds, and to save his life, recanted. Then finding his life was not to be given him, he recanted back again. Taken to the stake at Oxford, he thrust his right hand first into the flames, because that hand had basely signed his recantation. Nearly three hundred people it is said perished in three years for religion's sake, most of the burnings taking place at Smithfield, near London. Bishop Bonner of London got most of the blame; but Mary and Gardiner, Mary most of all, deserve the odium attached to these cruelties.

7. Loss of Calais.—The people were becoming horror-stricken at these burnings, and many fled to Geneva for safety. Mary's health was rapidly failing, and as her disease grew, so did her wrath and bitterness. Her husband visited her in 1557, to get her aid in a war against France, and Mary foolishly consented to join him. England was in no condition to go to war, her treasury was empty, her people discontented, and her army and navy a wreck. What was looked upon then as a great national disaster and disgrace befell the country. Calais, the last possession of England in France, was surrounded by French troops, and Mary, too intent on punishing heretics, failed to send it relief. In 1558 it surrendered, and England lost the last remnant of her conquests in France. Mary, like a true Englishwoman, felt the loss keenly, and in the same year died, worn out by sorrow and disease.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE WISE RULE OF ELIZABETH.

1. Elizabeth.—When Mary died, her sister Elizabeth became queen. At this time she was twenty-five years of age, tall and queenly in figure, with fair hair and blue eyes. As a queen she had few faults; as a woman she had many. In her council, surrounded by wise and careful advisers, she weighed everything before acting, and as events proved, seldom made a mistake. The good of her subjects was ever before her, and by her tact, caution, and skill in diplomacy, she kept the country out of war and gave it a chance to become rich and great. She was not content to have England at peace with foreign nations: she also sought to unite the various warring sections of her people and to restore peace and order throughout the nation. How she succeeded events will show. As a woman, she was vain, frivolous, fond of flattery and the attention of handsome courtiers. Frugal, even stingy, in all else, she spent large sums of money on dress and finery, leaving, it is said, three thousand dresses in her wardrobe. Her greatest fault was her habit of using deceit and falsehood to bewilder and overreach her enemies. This she did because, as she said, she was "a weak woman" with many powerful foes at home and abroad. Her education had been well looked after; for, not only was she an excellent horsewoman, dancer, shot, and musician, but she was well read in Greek, Latin, and French, and could converse in Italian and Spanish. She was the friend of the great writers who lived in her day, and at her court they found a hearty welcome.

2. Elizabeth's early difficulties.—When Elizabeth began her reign she found her people discontented, her treasury empty, her army and navy weak, and she had powerful enemies in the persons of Philip II. of Spain, and the King of France. To add to her difficulties, Mary, the daughter of James V. of Scotland, and granddaughter of Margaret, Henry VIII's elder sister, claimed the crown of England, on the plea that Elizabeth was illegitimate. Mary was married to the Dauphin of France, and Scotland in her absence was ruled by her mother, Mary of Guise, who acted as Regent. French troops had been brought into Scotland to help

the Regent against the "Lords of the Congregation," or Protestant nobles, who were now becoming very powerful, and were much under the influence of John Knox and Earl Murray, Mary's half-brother.

At this time great struggles were going on in Europe between Roman Catholics and Protestants. Philip II. of Spain was the most powerful ruler in Europe, and he was, with great cruelty, trying to crush out a rebellion in the Low Countries for political and religious freedom. In France a fierce struggle was going on between the Huguenots, or French Protestants, and the French king. So when Elizabeth became queen, the eyes of all Europe were upon her to see whether she would be a Protestant or a Roman Catholic.

At first she would not take the side of either religious party. The Protestants hoped she would be their friend, knowing the religious belief of Anne Boleyn, her mother; while the Roman Catholics were encouraged by her apparent hesitation. Her first task was to free England and herself from the control of Spain. She made peace with France. Philip, who wished to marry her, and the Pope, who tried to get her to espouse his cause, were put off with excuses. At length, when Parliament met, it was ordered that the Prayer-Book of Edward VI, with some slight changes, should be restored to the Churches, and that the clergy should recognize the Royal Supremacy of Elizabeth. Roman Catholics and people of other creeds were not to be molested, provided they attended the service of the English Church. If any refused to attend they were made to pay a heavy fine.

The Bishops for the most part refused to take the oath of supremacy, and were, therefore, removed from their offices and moderate Protestants put in their places. Elizabeth did not like the extreme Protestants, and she chose for her chief adviser in Church affairs Matthew Parker, Archbishop of Canterbury, a man of the same moderate views as her own. In the beginning of her reign, the Roman Catholics were more than half of the population, and Elizabeth had to be very careful, knowing that many of her subjects looked to Mary, Queen of Scots, who was a strong Roman Catholic, as the rightful queen.

3. Elizabeth and Scotland.—To offset Mary's influence in

England, Elizabeth aided the Protestant nobles, or "Lords of the Congregation," in Scotland in their struggle with Mary of Guise, who sought to crush out Protestantism. Lord Grey with 8,000 men was sent to help the Scotch against a French force, which the Regent had brought over, and which was now besieged in Leith. While the siege was going on, Mary of Guise died, and the French promised to leave the kingdom. The Scotch Lords also agreed that Elizabeth should be recognized as the queen of England, but Mary, the Scotch queen, would not be bound by this agreement. Shortly after this her husband, Francis II. of France, died, and she returned to rule over her own kingdom. She was warmly welcomed by Protestants and Roman Catholics alike, and her youth, beauty, and winning ways made her a general favourite. Her most powerful subjects and her Parliament were the followers of John Calvin of Geneva, a great Protestant teacher, and Mary did not attempt to force her own religious opinions on her people.

4. England's Prosperity.—Elizabeth's enemies abroad, France and Spain, owing to their jealousy of each other, left her at peace until they could settle their own quarrels. In the meantime the nation prospered greatly. Elizabeth's economy filled the public treasury, and the order and good government she gave the nation encouraged the people to make improvements in tilling the soil, and to engage in trade and commerce. Manufactures increased rapidly, and new industries were introduced through the many people that came to England to escape from the wars and religious persecutions in Flanders and France. Cloth-weaving was greatly improved by the Flemings, while later on, through the French, came a greater skill in silk manufactures. Raw gold and silver were brought from America, gold dust and ivory from Africa, and silks and cottons from the East. Increase of trade caused an increase in shipping, and Elizabeth encouraged her subjects to build ships for adventures in the far east, west, and north. Frobisher discovered the straits of Hudson's Bay, Sir Humphrey Gilbert tried to colonize Newfoundland, Hawkins opened up a traffic in slaves with the coast of Africa, and Sir Francis Drake, a famous sea-captain, sailed round the world in a little vessel, bringing home a great treasure, which he obtained by plundering Spanish settlements in America. So great was the increase of wealth among all classes

of the people that many things now considered necessities, but which then were luxuries, came into general use. Carpets on the floors, abundance of glass in the windows, pillows for the head, chimneys instead of holes in the roof, now became common. Money was spent freely by the gay lords and ladies on fine dresses, jewels, feasts, revels, and pageants. Money was so easily got that it was recklessly spent. Even the poor gained under Elizabeth's rule. An earnest effort was now made to lessen the pauperism that had so long existed. A law was passed making it necessary for each parish to provide for its own poor, and power was given to the parish to levy taxes for that purpose. Work-houses and poor-houses were to be built, where work, food, and shelter could be given to the needy, aged, and helpless. It was not, however, until near the end of Elizabeth's reign that the "Poor Laws" were completed.

5. Religious Discord.—While the country was thus growing in wealth, it unfortunately was not at peace in religious affairs. There were two kinds of people that were not satisfied with the way Elizabeth tried to govern the Church. The Roman Catholics could not take the Oath of Supremacy, and they were forbidden by the Pope to go to the English Church services. On the other hand there was a growing body that thought the English Church was too near the Roman Catholic Church in its form of worship and church government, and that wished to bring the English Church closer to the Churches in Germany and Switzerland. These were the *Puritans*, who wanted, they said, a *purser* form of worship. Elizabeth cared little what people believed so long as they all attended the same Church services. She wished to have one law in the Church for all classes of her subjects, just as there was but one law in the State. So Parliament passed an Act in 1563, that no person could hold an office, or be a member of Parliament, unless he would obey the Queen, and deny that the Pope had any authority in England.

6. Mary, Queen of Scots.—We saw that when Mary returned to Scotland she received a hearty welcome from her people. She was but nineteen at that time, and so beautiful, fascinating, and clever, that few people, even the sternest, could resist her charms. She had not been long in Scotland before she began to plot against Elizabeth for the English throne. Her subjects were ready to aid

her; so was Philip of Spain; and so were some of Elizabeth's subjects.

Mary was Elizabeth's heir, and this made Elizabeth's friends anxious. They were afraid that some fanatic would murder Elizabeth to give Mary the crown. So they frequently urged Elizabeth to marry and give them an heir to the throne. She would refuse until sorely pressed by her Parliament, and then would promise to choose a husband. But she never married although she had many lovers and suitors, who, for a time, were encouraged and then quietly rejected. Why she did not marry we do not know. Some think she desired to marry Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, who was for many years her favourite. She knew that if she married a Protestant she would displease her Roman Catholic subjects, whereas if she married a Roman Catholic she would anger her Protestant subjects. So she remained a "Virgin Queen" and found in the love and devotion of her people a partial recompense for the lack of husband and children.

The anxiety of Elizabeth's subjects was increased when Mary married, in 1565, Lord Darnley her cousin. Darnley, like Mary, was descended from Margaret, Henry VIII's sister, and his family were Roman Catholics. By this marriage Mary strengthened her claim on the throne of England, and had she now acted with prudence, Elizabeth might have been driven from the throne, or else compelled to recognize Mary as her successor. But Mary, with all her cleverness, could not control her passions, and by giving way to them she lost not only all chance of becoming queen of England, but also caused herself to be driven into exile. She soon tired of her young husband, who was a foolish youth, and wanted to become king, and by his jealousies and follies gave Mary much annoyance. She had an Italian secretary, David Rizzio, with whom she was so intimate that Darnley grew jealous. Aided by a band of rough Scotch lords he broke into Mary's chamber at Holyrood when she was supping with Rizzio. Rizzio was dragged out and stabbed to death, and his body flung down a staircase near Mary's chamber. Mary tried to save him but was held back by Darnley while the murder took place. After a time she pretended to forgive her husband, and three months after the murder, her son, James, was born. Not long after this event, Darnley being ill, Mary had him removed to an old building, Kirk-O'-Field, not

far from Holyrood, for quiet and rest. One night when Mary was attending a dance given to her servants in Holyrood, an explosion took place at Kirk-O'-Field, and the next morning Darnley and his page were found dead in an adjoining field. The house had been blown up with gunpowder, and although Darnley and the page had escaped from the house, they had been overtaken and murdered. No one knew whether Mary had planned the deed or not ; but the servants of the Earl of Bothwell, a bold, profligate noble, were seen near the scene of the tragedy that evening, and a short time after Mary allowed herself to be carried off by Bothwell to one of his castles and there married to him.

The people of Scotland were horrified at the murder and the marriage, and at once her lords rose against her. She was taken prisoner, and forced to give up her crown to her son. A year later she escaped from Loch Leven Castle, and gathered an army, but she was defeated at Langside, in 1568, by Earl Murray. With difficulty Mary escaped into England when she claimed the protection and aid of Elizabeth.

7. Mary in England.—What to do with Mary was more than Elizabeth could decide. Mary asked to be restored to her throne, and failing that, to be allowed to go to her mother's people in France. The Scotch demanded that she should be sent back to be tried for the murder of her husband. Elizabeth knew that it was unsafe to allow her to go to France, and she was unwilling to hand her over to her Scotch subjects, as that would look like encouraging rebellion. So she kept Mary a prisoner in England refusing either to send her back or bring her to trial. For eighteen years was she thus kept until the numerous plots formed against Elizabeth's life, in the interest of Mary, made it necessary that something should be done. For Mary had not been long in England before the Duke of Norfolk wished to marry her and put her on the throne. This plot was found out in time and Norfolk was warned and sent to the Tower. Then a rebellion broke out in the north, which was put down at the cost of many lives. Then the Pope excommunicated Elizabeth and released her subjects from their allegiance to her. Parliament answered this by making strict laws against the Roman Catholics ; and then another plot was formed to murder Elizabeth, to marry Mary to Norfolk, and through the aid of Spain to make

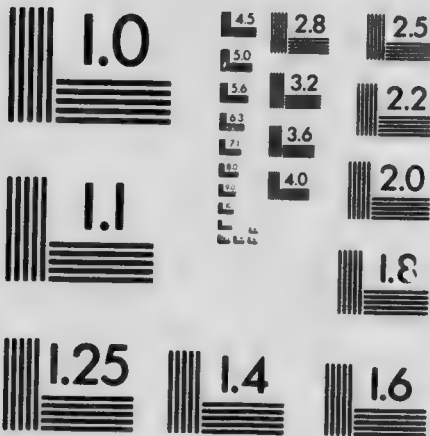
Mary queen. But Elizabeth had vigilant friends in her council, and this plot becoming known Norfolk was executed. So it went on for many years till, in 1587, Anthony Babington entered into a correspondence with Mary to kill Elizabeth, and make Mary queen. The letters passed through the hands of Walsingham, the Secretary of State, and on the evidence he supplied, Mary was tried before a commission of peers and sentenced to death. Elizabeth, for a time, would not consent to sign the death warrant, although urged to do so by Parliament and her ministers. At last she signed it, and the sentence was at once carried out. Mary died protesting her innocence, but the people breathed easier because a great danger was removed.

8. **The Spanish Armada.**—Meanwhile Elizabeth had been able to keep England out of foreign wars. She was asked to aid the Netherlands against Spain, but refused to do so openly, for many of her subjects did not want to have their trade with the Low Countries stopped. Nevertheless thousands of Englishmen crossed over to the aid of the Netherlands and fought in their battles against the Spaniards. Among those who left the English shores was Sir Philip Sidney, a brave and noble man, and an accomplished courtier, author, and soldier. He was killed at the Battle of Zutphen. The hatred borne the Spaniards at this time by the English was shown in many ways. There was no open war between England and Spain; nevertheless English ships were fitted out to plunder Spanish settlements in America, and seize their treasure ships returning from the rich mines of the New World. We have already mentioned how Drake returned from his voyage round the world laden with Spanish treasure. When he reached home Elizabeth visited his ship, made him a knight, and did not refuse to accept a large portion of his spoil. So it is not surprising that Philip of Spain was angry, and only waited till his hands were free to attack England. Meanwhile new expeditions were going out against Spanish America, and at last Elizabeth sent an army to the Low Countries to aid the Netherlands. Philip was also angry because Elizabeth had put to death several priests who came to England from a college at Douay in France to minister to the English Roman Catholics and to persuade them not to attend the English Church services. These priests were accused of preaching disloyalty and



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stirring the people up to rebellion, and for this many of them were executed, as well as for their religion.

At length Philip's chance came to make the long deferred attack. Mary, Queen of Scots, was dead, and Philip was looked to as the proper person to avenge the wrongs of the Roman Catholics, and to take Elizabeth's place on the throne of England. In 1585 he began his preparations. A great fleet, an "Armada," was to be made ready, and was to take on board 30,000 veteran Spanish troops under the command of the Duke of Parma in the Netherlands. It was then to cross to England, and Philip hoped that when his army landed all the English Roman Catholics would join him. While the "Armada" was getting ready, Drake made a bold attack on Cadiz harbour and burnt many vessels. This he called "singeing the Spanish king's beard." Elizabeth was slow to believe that the attack would be really made, and was loath to give money enough to make her fleet and army effective. What she grudged to do, her subjects did at their own expense. Vessels were fitted out by private gentlemen and sent out to do battle for England's freedom. Lord Howard of Effingham was appointed chief Admiral, but he had by his side the great sea-captains, Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, who had fought many a successful battle against Spanish ships. At last, on the 12th July, 1588, the Armada, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, set sail. It consisted of one hundred and twenty-nine ships of great size, with thousands of soldiers and sailors on board. To oppose it was an English fleet of eighty small vessels, made up of a few of the Queen's ships and a number of privateers. Never was England in greater danger, and never were her people more true to their country and sovereign. Roman Catholics were as eager as Protestants to offer their aid and defend England's shores. The Queen's high courage did not fail her, and her appearance among her soldiers was all that was needed to give them hope and confidence. Beacon lights flamed from the English headlands to give news of the Armada's approach. At last the great crescent of huge ships was seen coming up the Channel, and the small English fleet sailed out to damage it as much as possible. They hung on its rear and flanks to cut off any ship that might be found separated from the main body. At night fire-ships were sent adrift into the Spanish fleet, and in the fear and confusion that followed several Spanish ships were captured and destroyed. The

Spaniards found that their vessels were so large and clumsy that their shot passed over the English ships, which could sail away or around them at pleasure. In despair the Armada began to retreat, pursued by its active and vengeful enemies. To add to their misfortunes a great storm arose which carried the Spanish vessels past Parma's army, and drove them far north. Rounding the Orkneys to return to Spain the vessels were dashed on the rocks, and the shores of the north of Scotland and Ireland were strewn with corpses. Some reached the shore alive only to be murdered by the savage inhabitants of the coast. Of all that great fleet only fifty-three vessels reached Spain. England was saved: the wind and the waves had fought her battles even more effectively than her sailors or soldiers. With the defeat of the Armada passed away the long dread of a great danger, and the nation's joy and relief found expression in the glorious literature that followed.

9. Elizabethan Literature.—Not since Chaucer had England a great poet, until Edmund Spenser wrote in this reign the "Faerie Queen." Other great writers followed: Sidney, Raleigh, Bacon, Hooker, and greatest of all, William Shakespeare, who born in 1564 began to write towards the close of this reign his wonderful plays and dramas. To these men, great in an age of great men, Elizabeth was a friend and counsellor. Such an era in literature the nation had not hitherto experienced, and it is doubtful if such another era has since come to the English people. The great events and the daring deeds and thoughts of the time seemed to demand a Spenser and a Shakespeare to give them voice. Nor must we forget the efforts made by Sir Walter Raleigh, at once courtier, author, soldier, and voyager, to colonize Virginia. Though the colony was a failure in his time, he brought back to Europe the potato as well as tobacco, both of which soon came into use. In this reign, too, voyages were undertaken to the northern seas and the Far East Indies, and Elizabeth gave in 1599 a charter to the East India Company, with the sole right of trading in that fabled land of untold riches.

10. Ireland under Elizabeth.—It is sad to turn away from this story of brave deeds and growing prosperity to England's treatment of Ireland. Henry VIII. had tried to make Ireland acknowledge England's laws and accept her religion, and by so doing had

given rise to a great bitterness among the Irish people. Edward VI. tried to force Protestantism on them and failed, as the Irish did not want any change in their religion. Then Mary came and restored the old religion, but began English settlements in two counties. When Elizabeth became queen, she followed her father's policy of making Ireland English. Soon there was a rebellion under Shan O'Neil, which was put down by Sir Henry Sidney in 1567. But the rebellion broke out again under Shan's son, Hugh, Earl of Tyrone, in 1595, when the Spaniards gave their aid. He defeated the English, and Essex, the darling of Elizabeth's old age, was sent against him. Essex made an unwise peace with him, and then returned to England for Elizabeth's approval. She was very angry at his folly and ordered him to keep his house for a time. Essex, in his vain pride, marched to London to seize the queen; but was arrested, tried, and executed. Lord Mountjoy, an able man, was sent in his place to Ireland, and succeeded in suppressing the revolt. In the next reign, as we shall find, large tracts of land were taken from the Irish in the north and given to Scotch and English settlers.

11. Death of Elizabeth.—But the end of this great reign was now near. Elizabeth, after the death of Essex, became despondent. She had lost much of the sympathy of her people, although in memory of her great services they bore with her frailties of temper and disposition to rule arbitrarily. Nevertheless she knew when to yield to her Parliament and people. One of her last and most gracious acts was to abolish "monopolies" on a number of articles of common use. The Parliament had grown in power during these years of peace and prosperity, and it only waited Elizabeth's death to begin again the struggle for its lost rights and privileges.

Elizabeth's end was a sad one. Dejected and wretched, for days she would take no food, nor speak to any one. To the last she refused to name her successor. Asked if James of Scotland, Mary's son, should succeed her, a slight motion of the head was all the sign of approval she gave. On the 24th March, 1603, England's great queen died.

CHAPTER XV.

CROWN AND PARLIAMENT.

1. **James I.**—Elizabeth was no sooner dead than Cecil, the minister of her old age, sent for James VI. of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, to be king of England. No one objected, and James came down from Scotland to London and was crowned on the sacred stone of Scone in Westminster. So the old prophecy was fulfilled, and a Scotch king reigned in England under the title of James I.

James was the first of the Stuart line, and, like all his race in England, was obstinate, self-willed, and filled with the notion that he ruled by "Divine Right"; that is, he believed he held the throne from God directly, and not from his Parliament and people. To this belief he added another, viz., that bishops were divinely appointed, and that the kingship was not secure unless the Church was governed by bishops. As he said, "No Bishop, no King." Perhaps he got this idea from the fact that when king in Scotland he had to endure a good many restraints and rebukes from the Presbyterian clergy of that nation. At any rate, as soon as he reached England he cast his lot in with the English Church and left the Presbyterian body to which he had formerly belonged.

James had a few good qualities and a great many bad ones. He was well educated, and had read much on church history and theology. He loved to show his learning, and to that end wrote pamphlets against smoking (which was becoming fashionable) and witchcraft, and in favor of the "Divine Right of Kings." He had a canny Scotch wit and humour, and said many shrewd and pithy things. Nevertheless, he was a foolish king: "the wisest fool in Christendom," as a French statesman called him. He was easily ruled by favourites, and his court was often the scene of drunkenness and low debauchery. James himself was given to gluttony and drunkenness, and as in dress he was slovenly, and in person awkward and ungainly, he made himself contemptible and ridiculous by his actions. The English people had been accustomed to dignified kings and queens, and the change from the queenly Elizabeth to the rickety James did not tend to make them quietly

submit to James' claim to rule "not by the common will but for the common weal.

2. State of the Nation.—At this time, too, the people had become so prosperous under Elizabeth's rule that they had recovered much of the old spirit of freedom which forced the Plantagenets to give Parliament the control of taxation. Elizabeth had felt this in the later years of her reign, and had unwillingly conceded many things to her Parliament. So, when James, with his awkward ways and foreign accent, began to dictate to his Parliament and people how they should be governed, they resented it, and soon made him understand that the English people did not want arbitrary rule.

The nation was in an unsettled condition owing to the different views held by the people on religious questions. The Puritans wanted changes made in the Church services, so as to bring them nearer the form of worship in Scotland and Geneva. They disliked making the sign of the cross in baptism, wearing a surplice, or giving a ring in the marriage service. They, also, were very strict about keeping Sunday, and about indulging in amusements. In questions of state they upheld the liberty of Parliament and the right of the people to make their own laws. Then there was the Church party which wished the Church to remain as Elizabeth had left it, and which was strongly in favour of giving the king a great deal of power. Lastly, there were the Roman Catholics, who wished to restore the Roman Catholic faith. They had been fiercely persecuted in Elizabeth's reign and now looked to James for relief, because his mother had been a strict Roman Catholic. The hope of the Puritans that he would make changes in the Church services to please them, was soon destroyed. James had been so sternly treated by the Scotch Presbyterians that he hated them and their ways; and as the Puritans in many respects were like the Presbyterians, he, at a Conference at Hampton Court, roundly abused them when they asked for changes, and said if they would not conform he would "harry them out of the land." The only good result of this conference was the decision to issue a revised translation of the Bible, which was done in 1611. This is the version still in use.

3. The Puritans begin to Emigrate.—Now that it was seen

that James was wedded to the Church as it stood, many Puritans determined to leave their native land and find a home where they could worship God as they pleased. Among others that left was a small congregation under the leadership of their pastor, John Robinson, and an Elder, William Brewster. It first went to Amsterdam and Leyden and then in 1620 came back to England, whence it took passage in a little vessel called the "Mayflower" for the shores of North America. This little band of 120 souls landed at Plymouth Rock in Massachusetts, and, after suffering great privations for many years, founded a flourishing colony, which was the beginning of the New England States.

4. Gunpowder Plot.—If the Puritans were disappointed in James, much more were the Roman Catholics. The relief that they expected did not come; on the other hand, Parliament made the laws more severe against them, and James began to banish their priests, and to fine them for not attending the English Church services. The result was that a few desperate men, headed by one Robert Catesby, formed a plot to blow up Parliament while it was being opened, kill the king and members of Parliament, and then seize one of the younger members of the royal family and place him on the throne. To carry out this plot gunpowder was stored in barrels in a vault or cellar under the House of Lords, and a man named Guy Fawkes was entrusted with the task of setting fire to it at the proper time. Fortunately one of the conspirators did not wish his brother-in-law, who was in Parliament, to be killed, and sent him a warning note not to attend. This led to inquiries being made, and a search taking place the evening before Parliament was to be opened, November 5th, 1605, Guy Fawkes was found concealed in the cellar, and the whole plot was exposed. The conspirators tried to escape, but most of them were seized and put to death. The result of this wicked and foolish plot was that the laws were made still more cruel and oppressive against Roman Catholics.

5. Crown and Parliament.—Very soon James began to disagree with his Parliaments. He insisted on his right to collect taxes and place duties on goods without consent of Parliament; and to please his favourites and put money in his treasury, he revived the monopolies which had been given up by Elizabeth. Nearly every

article of common use was made the subject of a "monopoly," and in this way the people had to pay for what they used far more than the things were worth. James' expenses were heavy, for he had to keep an army in Ireland. The people there were discontented and rebellious, because they had been driven out of their holdings in Ulster and their land given to English and Scotch settlers. Besides, James surrounded himself with profligate favourites who wasted his revenue. His first favourite was Robert Carr, a dissolute young Scotchman, who committed a grave crime and in consequence was disgraced. Then came George Villiers, afterwards known as the Duke of Buckingham, who by his beauty and fascinating manners soon became so powerful with James and his son Charles as to be able to influence them to do anything he wished. Villiers was looked upon as an insolent upstart by the great nobles; but he made the proudest and highest in the land seek his favour. All who wished to obtain anything from the king had to win over Buckingham by gifts and presents. In this way, the penniless adventurer, George Villiers, soon became the rich and powerful Buckingham. This man, with his extravagance and insolence, Parliament in vain sought to keep in check. James would not agree to give up his power of imposing taxes, and in 1614 dissolved Parliament because it would not grant him any money until he abandoned his unjust claims.

6. The Spanish Match.—For seven years after this James ruled without a Parliament, and, to keep his extravagant court supplied with money, he did a great many wicked and foolish things. He levied fines, forced loans, and benevolences, and made himself ridiculous by compelling people of small means to take titles or else pay a fine for refusing. He created a new title, that of "baronet," which he sold for £100. Buckingham also used the law courts to fill the treasury, and judges took presents from those who brought cases before them for settlement.

Meanwhile James sought to make friends with Spain, and to this end tried to bring about a match between his son Charles and the daughter of Philip III. This the English people did not want, for they hated the Spaniards and were afraid of having for a queen a Roman Catholic princess. James, however, prided himself on his statecraft and would not listen to the objections of his people. To

please the Spanish court he did the most cruel and unjust act of his reign. At this time Sir Walter Raleigh was a prisoner in the Tower on a flimsy charge of treason committed in 1603. Thirteen years was he imprisoned, and, to while away his time, wrote his great work *The History of the World*. Tired of his long confinement, he told James he knew of a gold mine in Guiana, up the river Orinoco, and if he would give him his freedom he would go out and bring the king home a great treasure. James released him, but warned him he must not, at the peril of his life, attack any Spanish settlements. Raleigh set sail, and when he reached the mouth of the Orinoco, he sent an expedition up the river to search for the mine. His men did not find it, but got into a fight with some Spaniards, and Raleigh's son was killed. Raleigh had to return without the expected treasure, and when he reached England he was beheaded, 1618, to please the Spanish king, who complained of Raleigh's attack on one of his settlements.

James was willing to allow others besides Raleigh to suffer, to please Spain. In 1618, a great war broke out in Germany, and lasted thirty years. The Thirty Years' War was due to James' son-in-law, Frederick, the Elector of the Palatinate, accepting the crown of Bohemia, which was claimed by Ferdinand, Emperor of Germany. The war that followed soon became one between Protestants and Roman Catholics, and Spain gave her aid to the Catholic Ferdinand against the Protestant Frederick. Frederick was very unfortunate and lost not only Bohemia, but also his own Electorate on the Rhine. The English people would have gladly gone to war with Spain to restore him to his dominions ; but James was so anxious to keep peace with Spain that he refused to give any aid. He thought he could get Spain to restore Frederick to his possessions by a policy of conciliation. Spain, however, would not interfere in his behalf, and it seemed as if the Spanish king was in no hurry to have the marriage take place. Impatient of delay, Charles and Buckingham went in disguise to the Spanish court, hoping that their presence would hasten the match. They had not been there long before Buckingham got into a quarrel, and Charles found that the Infanta did not like him. One excuse after another was made for delay, and although Charles was prepared to promise anything to obtain his end, the marriage was

broken off because Spain would not interfere in the interests of Frederick.

6. **The Parliament of 1621.**—Before this had taken place, James had called his third Parliament to get supplies. Many famous men came up to this Parliament; among others, John Pym, John Hampden, Sir John Eliot, Sir Thomas Wentworth, and Coke and Seldon the famous lawyers. They at once began to complain of the fines, taxes, and monopolies with which the king and Buckingham had been oppressing the people. They also impeached Lord Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, for taking bribes from suitors. Bacon, who was the greatest thinker of his day, had just written a famous book—*The Novum Organum*—on the best way to study science. He acknowledged his guilt, and was fined and driven in disgrace from the bench. Parliament was very much in earnest, and made James give up the monopolies. Besides, it told the king he should break off the proposed match with the Spanish princess and give his aid to Frederick. James thought it impertinent to give him advice on foreign affairs, and when Parliament claimed the right to discuss anything of interest to the people, he tore the protestation out of the Journals of the House and dissolved it. It was about this time (1622) the first weekly newspaper appeared.

7. **Close of James' Reign.**—Hardly was Parliament dissolved when Charles and Buckingham came back from Spain. They were eager for war and forced James to call another Parliament to get the necessary supplies. A small sum was voted and then Parliament adjourned. Charles had now arranged to marry Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Henry IV. of France, and James was unwilling to call Parliament again because he knew the feeling against the heir to the throne marrying a Roman Catholic. So he did not wait for Parliament to give a larger grant, but sent 12,000 men under Count Mansfield to aid Frederick in the Palatinate. The expedition was a great failure, and most of the men died of disease brought on from want of proper food and clothing. This sad failure hastened the King's end, and he died of ague in 1625, leaving to his son Charles his throne, and a standing quarrel with his Parliament.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE CIVIL WAR.

1. Charles I.—Unlike his father, Charles was dignified and kingiy in manner and appearance, with a grave, intelligent countenance, and a reserved but gracious manner. In his family, he was a faithful husband and an affectionate father. As a man, he was free from many of the vices of princes, and was sincerely attached to the English Church. But it did not take his Parliament and people long to find out that he was headstrong, obstinate, and insincere; and, like his father, filled with the notion that he ruled by Divine Right. His great vice was falsehood; he would make solemn promises to his parliaments when in a strait, and then break them as soon as he thought himself out of danger. So in spite of his kingly manners, and his good private life, he was a much worse king than James I.

2. Early Troubles.—Charles soon got into a quarrel with his Parliament, which disliked the influence Buckingham had over him. Charles asked his first Parliament for a large sum to carry on the war, but instead of giving him what he wanted, it granted him less than half, and besides refused to give him, for more than a year, a tax called "Tonnage and Poundage." It had been the custom to grant this tax (which was so much on every tun of beer and wine, and on every pound of certain other articles) to the king for life, and Charles was so angry at Parliament that he soon afterwards dissolved it, when it began to enquire into Buckingham's conduct.

Buckingham now thought he would make himself and the king popular by sending a fleet to Spain to attack Cadiz. The expedition was not well equipped and when it reached Cadiz Bay, the men, who went on shore, got drunk and had to be taken back to their vessels in a helpless condition. The fleet then returned to England, after failing to take some Spanish treasure-ships expected from America. So this expedition, from which the king and Buckingham hoped so much, ended in leaving them heavily in debt, and forced Charles to call another Parliament in 1626.

When Charles' second Parliament met, Sir John Eliot, a noble

patriot, who spoke words which stirred the hearts of his fellow-members, moved to have Buckingham impeached for wasting the king's revenues. The Commons were proceeding with the impeachment when Charles, to save his favourite, once more dissolved Parliament.

3. Forced Loans.—Charles now tried to get money without asking his Parliament's consent. He had much need of it, for urged by Buckingham, he had begun a war against France in aid of the French Protestants of La Rochelle. So he began to levy tonnage and poundage, and to force people to lend him money although he had no intention of ever paying it back. In this way he collected a large sum, although many refused to pay and were punished in various ways. Some were fined and imprisoned, others were forced into the army and navy, or had soldiers billeted in their houses. In this way Buckingham got money enough to raise an army and fleet to go to La Rochelle, where the English were so badly defeated and suffered so heavy a loss that they had to return home.

4. Petition of Right.—Parliament now had to be summoned to get supplies, and when it met, it at once began to complain of the way the king had collected money and imprisoned those who had refused to pay his forced loans. Sir John Eliot was again the chief spokesman, and under his guidance Parliament drew up a "Petition of Right," in which they demanded of the king that no man should be asked for a loan without consent of Parliament; that no man should be sent to prison without cause being shown; that soldiers should not be billeted in private houses, and that martial law should cease. The king did not want to agree to this petition, but he was so much in need of money that he finally yielded. On June 7, 1628, the Petition of Right became law, and the people were so delighted that they rang the bells and lighted great bonfires. Parliament, too, granted Charles the money he wanted; but it did not cease its attack on Buckingham, who now began to prepare another expedition for La Rochelle. This disturber of the peace of the nation was, however, to trouble them no longer. When on the point of leaving Portsmouth for France, he was stabbed to the heart by one John Felton, who had a private grudge against him, and blamed him for all England's woes.

The king wept at the loss of his favourite, but the people rejoiced and praised Felton for the deed.

5. Sir John Eliot.—Buckingham, whom all thought the cause of the king's bad government, was dead, yet matters did not mend. The king soon ceased to be bound by the Petition of Right, and began once more to raise money by illegal means, just as if he had never promised to wait the consent of his parliament. He also caused his people anxiety by making William Laud, Bishop of London. Laud wished to enforce greater strictness in the observance of forms and ceremonies in church worship, and he taught that Charles ruled by Divine Right, and could do as he wished without asking the consent of his people. What with Laud's efforts to make changes in the church, and Charles' arbitrary rule, it was feared by the Puritans that England would lose her religion and her freedom. So when Parliament met in 1629, there was great excitement, and Eliot demanded that the custom-house officers who had taken away the goods of a member of Parliament should be punished. Charles sent down an order to Parliament to adjourn. Parliament refused, and to prevent the speaker or chairman from leaving his place, two members held him down while Eliot put a strong resolution to vote, condemning, as a traitor, any one who would make any changes in religion, or who should pay or take custom duties without consent of Parliament. The vote had scarcely been taken when the king's guard appeared and broke up the session. A few days later Charles dissolved Parliament and sent Eliot to the Tower, where three years and a half after he died, killed by the close confinement of prison life. Charles knew that Eliot was dying from the effects of imprisonment; yet he refused to release him.

6. Wentworth and Laud.—For eleven years Charles now ruled without a parliament. Weston was his Treasurer; Wentworth, who had deserted his old friends, was his chief adviser; while Laud, who became Archbishop of Canterbury, ruled the Church. Perhaps Charles did not, at first, intend to go so long without a parliament; but as the years passed he found it easier to have his own way without a parliament than with one. He had made peace with France, and Weston was a careful treasurer, so his expenses were light. Times, too, were better, and with the revival

of trade came an increased revenue from customs ; and Charles found it not at all difficult to make ends meet now that there was no war. The courtiers thought that the people were content to be governed in this way, and laughed when any one talked of the king's illegal rule. Wentworth, who formerly had stood by Eliot and Hampden for the Petition of Right, now aimed at making the king absolute. He wanted to raise a standing army, and force Parliament to do the king's will. The king was afraid to try such means, so Strafford (as Wentworth was now called) had himself appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, where he proposed to show Charles how a land could be ruled by fear. While Strafford was in Ireland he made the Irish Parliament do whatever he willed, and so ruled that there was peace and order under his heavy hand. He allowed no tyranny but his own, and raised a standing army, which could be used, if necessary, in England against the English. In every possible way he sought to create ill-feeling between the Irish and the English settlers in Ireland, and the fruits of this policy were soon to appear. One good thing he did he introduced the culture of flax and the manufacture of linen, an industry that has been very successful in Ireland.

In the meantime Laud was emptying the pulpits of Puritans, and filling them with new men who taught the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings, and who believed in his ideas of public worship. This made the English people very anxious, for religion was more to them than civil liberty. Charles greatly increased the power of the Star Chamber Court, which was now used to fine and punish men who would not submit to his tyranny. Laud, to carry out his plans in the Church, used another arbitrary tribunal, the High Commission Court, before which the clergy who would not preach and do as he wished were brought and punished. The Puritans were very strict in keeping Sunday, and would not allow any games or amusements on that day. This gave Laud a chance to annoy them. He induced Charles to order the clergy to announce from the pulpits that games and sports were to be practised on Sunday after the Church service was over, as had been customary some time before. Many honest ministers refused to do his bidding, and were driven from their pulpits. The Puritans began to despair of recovering their religious freedom, and thousands during these dark days left England forever, and settled in New England. Not Puritans alone, but

Roman Catholics found homes in the wilds of North America. In 1634, Lord Baltimore founded the colony of Maryland, where one of the first laws was that religious liberty should be allowed to all.

7. Ship-money.—Charles now found a new way of raising money. A fleet was needed in the English channel to protect English trade, but Charles had no money to equip one. A lawyer told him that it was once the custom for the coast towns to provide ships, and the king saw in the suggestion a means of keeping up a fleet and army without any expense to himself. He, therefore, commanded the people living in the coast towns to provide him with ships. The next step was to get them to pay him money to equip a fleet, and then as the people living inland were benefited by this fleet protecting England's shores, he called upon them, also, to pay a tax. When John Hampden, who lived in Buckinghamshire, refused to pay, he was brought before the king's judges, who decided by a vote of seven to five, that the king had a right to collect this tax, although the Petition of Right said no tax could be levied without the consent of Parliament. Hampden lost his case, but his refusal to pay roused the people to a sense of their danger.

8. Laud and Scotland.—How long Charles would have ruled without a parliament, we know not, had not Laud by his excessive zeal brought him into conflict with the Scotch. Wentworth, who was in Ireland, and Laud had been writing letters to each other, and laying a plan by which the king was to be made absolute in the State, and the Puritans and Presbyterians were to be forced to submit to Laud's rule in the Church. This scheme which they called "Thorough," proposed that a standing army should be raised, and by it all opposition to the king's will crushed out. Wentworth was carrying out part of this plan in Ireland, and Laud was anxious to try the rest in Scotland. So he persuaded Charles to appoint bishops in Scotland, and to order that a Prayer-Book, much like the English Prayer-Book, should be used in all the Scotch churches. The Scotch did not use any Prayer-book, and when an attempt was made to read the new service in a church in Edinburgh, an old woman, Jenny Geddes, threw her stool at the preacher's head, and there was a riot, which led to the church being cleared. When Charles heard of this he commanded the Scotch to submit; but,

instead of that, they signed the National Covenant, whereby they solemnly swore to defend their religion against all its enemies. Not content with that they gathered an army, and when Charles marched north to punish them, they at once crossed the Border, prepared to give him battle. Charles now found himself in a strait. His army would not fight against the Scotch, and he had to return to London. He sent for Strafford from Ireland to help him, and when Strafford came he advised Charles to call Parliament to get money for an army, and then went back to Ireland for his own troops.

9. The Short Parliament.—When Parliament met in April, 1640, it was in no hurry to give the king the money he wanted. It began to complain of Charles' illegal taxes, and refused to make a grant until its grievances were redressed. In the meantime the Scotch were quietly waiting in the north of England to see what was going to be done. Charles was very angry at Parliament and dissolved it, after it had sat three weeks. He then went against the Scotch with all the men he could gather; but his soldiers would not fight, and he had to make terms with the Scotch by promising them a large sum of money.

10. The Long Parliament.—To get this money, he called the famous "Long Parliament," in Nov. 1640, a Parliament which was not legally dissolved until after nineteen years had passed. It immediately began to undo, as far as possible, all the wrongful acts the king, Wentworth, and Laud had committed since the last Parliament had met. By one act it abolished the Star Chamber Court, the High Commission Court, and all other courts that had no right to exist. It then proceeded to punish Strafford and Laud for the bad advice they had given the king and for their tyrannical acts. Strafford was at first *impeached* by the Commons for treason; and when the impeachment seemed likely to fail, because it was hard to prove he had broken the law of treason, he was *attainted*, that is, a law was made condemning him to die, and causing his family to lose his title and property. Charles was asked to sign the bill of attainder, and at first refused, for he had promised Strafford he would not allow a hair of his head to be injured. But when the queen urged him to sign, seeing how the people gathered in angry crowds before the palace, and when Strafford sent word to his master not to spare

him, Charles yielded. Strafford was at once executed, and the throngs that came to see the great traitor die went home rejoicing. Laud was not executed till 1645, four years later.

11. The Grand Remonstrance.—Parliament was not content with removing the men who gave the king bad advice. It sought to prevent bad government in the future, and to make sure that Parliaments should be called it passed a "Triennial Act," by which it was ordered that a Parliament should meet, at least once in every three years. But through its fear of being dissolved, it went too far, and made Charles consent to a bill decreeing that Parliament should not be dissolved without its own consent. It passed laws against illegal taxation, and condemned the decision the judges had given in the case of Hampden and ship-money. The chief leaders in Parliament of those opposed to the king were Pym and Hampden; but a party arose that thought the king was being harshly treated, and that Parliament was exceeding its rightful authority. Pym and his followers wanted to take the command of the army and navy, and the appointment of great officers in the State, out of the king's hands, as they could no longer trust him. These demands caused a great many to go over to the king's side, and such moderate men as Lord Falkland and Edward Hyde became leaders of a party which wished to keep the king from acts of tyranny, and yet leave him his ordinary power and authority. Thus we see that now there were two parties in Parliament, and as time passed the feeling between them became very bitter. This feeling was increased by terrible news from Ireland. When Strafford returned to England, he left no one behind strong enough to keep peace, and to prevent the English and Irish from flying at each other's throats. A dreadful massacre took place in 1641, in which the English settlers, being few in number suffered most. The Irish leaders said that they were acting, under Charles' authority. This was not true, but many people believed it. This they did the more readily because Charles was very cool and unconcerned when the news of the rising and massacre reached him.

Pym and Hampden, seeing what a strong following Charles had in Parliament, determined to rouse the nation by bringing in a bill called the "Grand Remonstrance," in which all the king's

misrule was recited, and a demand made for parliamentary control of appointments. An excited debate followed and lasted all day, after which, by the small majority of eleven, the "Grand Remonstrance" was passed.

12. Attempt to Seize the Five Members.—Charles was very angry when he heard of what had been done, and urged, it is said, by the queen, went down to Westminster with a company of Guards and armed gentlemen, to seize five of the leading members of the Commons—Pym, Hampden, Hollis, Haselrig, and Strode. Fortunately, the news of his coming was brought to Parliament, and when he entered the House he saw that the men he wanted had escaped. They had taken refuge in the City of London, where they were protected by armed train-bands and apprentice boys. The next week they returned to their seats in triumph, escorted by the citizens, who were strongly on the side of Parliament, and against the king, as Charles, some time before, had fined the city heavily because its people had built outside the limits allowed by law.

13. Civil War Begins.—And now it was clear that war was nigh at hand. Charles left London, and the queen went to Holland to collect arms, and raise money, taking the crown jewels with her for that purpose. In August, 1642, the king raised his standard at Nottingham, and called upon his friends to rally around it. He sent some men to seize the arms and ammunition in Hull, but Pym had given instructions to the governor of that city to close the gates, and so Parliament was able to begin the struggle with a supply of war material ready to hand.

The king was supported by most of the nobles, gentry, and clergy, while Parliament had the great mass of the middle classes, the small farmers, merchants, and artisans on its side. The north and west were with the king, and the east and south with Parliament. The King's followers were called "Cavaliers," because many of them were skilled horsemen and accustomed to arms. They wore their hair long, whereas the Puritans who fought in the Parliamentary army had theirs cropped close to the head, and so were called "Roundheads." The king had the best soldiers, but Parliament had the most money and the great advantage of having the rich city of London at its back. During the strife

there were two Parliaments: the king's at Oxford, to which most of the peers went, and the Long Parliament at Westminster, composed of a majority of the Commons.

The early battles were favourable to the king; partly because his troops under his dashing nephew, Prince Rupert, were good horsemen and used to arms; and partly because the Parliamentary general, Earl Essex, was afraid to push the king too far. Two little skirmishes in 1642, at Powick Bridge and Edgehill, were somewhat against Parliament, and Charles' forces for a time threatened London.

14. Principal Events of the War.—The war was carried on in many quarters at the same time. The king was very successful in Cornwall and Devon; and Fairfax, the parliamentary general in the north, was hard pressed by the royalists. In a skirmish at Chalgrove Field, 1643, Hampden was killed, and in the same year, in a battle at Newbury, Lord Falkland fell, crying, "Peace, peace." Town after town passed into the hands of the king, and great fear was felt for London itself. Pym now sent Sir Henry Vane to Scotland, and by agreeing to accept Presbyterianism as the form of church government in England, obtained the aid of a Scotch army. The "Solemn League and Covenant," as this bargain was called, had scarcely been signed when Pym died.

And now appeared on the scene one of the greatest men England ever had. Oliver Cromwell, a stern, brave, Puritan gentleman-farmer of Huntingdonshire, had been for some time in Parliament and had watched the growing evils in the government of the country. When the war broke out he formed a regiment of horse which became known as "Cromwell's Ironsides," on account of the severe drill through which it passed. They were not common soldiers, but gentlemen farmers and sturdy yeomen who fought for their religion and freedom, and not for pay. Cromwell saw that the only way to fight the king was to match his cavaliers with strong men who knew what they were fighting for, and loved the cause of religion and freedom. It was not long before Cromwell had a chance to show what his "Ironsides" could do. For in 1644, at Marston Moor, in Yorkshire, Fairfax, aided by the Scots and Cromwell, met and scattered the king's troops under Prince Rupert. This was the first great battle of the war, and Cromwell

proved that his "Ironsides" were more than a match for Rupert's cavalry.

Cromwell now pressed to have the army reorganized, and succeeded in getting Parliament to pass a "Self-Denying Ordinance," by which members of Parliament were not allowed to command in



the army. Fairfax was made commander-in-chief, and by special permission Cromwell was allowed to remain with him. Strict discipline was now enforced in the army, and the "New Model," as it was called, in a short time, proved how wise was Cromwell's advice and leadership by utterly defeating the king in a decisive

battle at Naseby in Northamptonshire. This battle really ended the war, for Charles now fled to Wales, and thence to the Scotch army at Newark, where he hoped to be kindly treated. Parliament would have allowed the king to come back had he been willing to surrender the command of the army for twenty years, and to accept Presbyterianism as the form of religion in England. But Charles would not consent, so the Scotch gave him up to Parliament in return for the payment of £400,000 due them as expenses.

15. Trial and Execution of Charles I.—When Charles came back he was well treated, and might have been restored to the throne had he acted with sincerity towards Parliament and the army. He thought that they could not get along without him, and hoped by taking advantage of the quarrels between the officers and Parliament to recover all his lost authority. In consequence of one of these quarrels, the army seized the king, and offered to put him back on the throne, on much more reasonable terms than had been offered by Parliament. Charles pretended to treat with the officers, but at the same time was stirring up another civil war, hoping through the aid of the Scotch and Irish, to be able to make his own terms. Suddenly he escaped from the army and made his way to the Isle of Wight, where he was captured and imprisoned. Several risings took place in his favor, but they were soon crushed. Then the army sternly resolved that it would bring "Charles Stuart, that man of blood" to account for all the misery he had brought on the land. Parliament was purged of the members who would not consent to bring the king to trial; and then a tribunal of sixty-three men was formed, with Bradshaw a famous lawyer at its head, to solemnly impeach the king. Before this court, Charles was brought, and called to answer to charges of treason and murder. In these last trying moments Charles maintained all the dignity of a king, and refused to defend himself before judges having no legal authority. Nevertheless the trial went on, and having heard the evidence, the court condemned the king to die. Nine days later, on a scaffold outside a window of Whitehall Palace, Charles Stuart, calmly and bravely laid his head on the fatal block, Jan. 30, 1649.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. **England becomes a Republic.**—England was now without a king, and, as the House of Lords was soon after abolished, the only authority left to govern was a part of the Long Parliament, composed of not more than eighty men. This “Rump Parliament,” as it was coarsely called, promptly undertook the task of ruling, and elected a council of State of forty members, to manage the affairs of the nation. England was declared a “Commonwealth,” and Parliament set to work to meet the dangers that threatened the young Republic. At foreign courts the execution of Charles was looked upon as a terrible crime. None of the European nations would recognize the “Commonwealth” and its council of State, for they thought Charles Stuart, Charles I’s eldest son, was the rightful ruler of England. There was also much discontent at home, for many, now that the king was dead, began to look upon him as a martyr. This feeling was increased by the publication of a book, the “Royal Image,” which professed to be an account by the king himself of his sayings and doings while a prisoner. It painted Charles in very flattering colours, and made him appear little less than a saint. The book was a forgery by a Presbyterian clergyman, Dr. Gauden; nevertheless it had a large sale, and made many regret that the king had been treated so harshly. In Ireland, too, there was danger to the Commonwealth. There the Duke of Ormond had united all classes of the population in favor of Charles II., who was invited to go to Ireland and become king. Prince Rupert was in the channel preying on English commerce with a number of ships which had taken refuge in Dutch harbours. Scotland was growing daily more discontented and was beginning to look for the restoration of Charles II. All the Scotch waited for was Charles’ assent to the Covenant, after which they were ready to make him their king, and to aid him in recovering the English throne.

2. **Cromwell in Ireland.**—The most pressing danger was in Ireland, and to that unhappy land an English army was sent in 1649, with Cromwell as leader. Time was precious, and much

had to be done before Cromwell could restore peace and English supremacy in the island. He and his men thought the Irish deserved little mercy on account of the massacre of 1641. The work of re-conquest began with the siege of Drogheda, and Cromwell ordered that no one bearing arms should be spared. The city was taken by storm and 2000 men were put to the sword; while of those who surrendered, every tenth man was knocked on the head, the rest being sent as slaves to the Barbadoes. A month later a similar massacre took place at Wexford, though not by Cromwell's orders. The effect of this terrible severity was soon seen, the other towns offering but little opposition to Cromwell's army. After nine months spent in Ireland Cromwell returned to England, leaving the task of completing the conquest to others. Sad was the fate of the poor Irish who had taken part in the strife. Many were put to death or exiled, and thousands were turned out of their homes and banished to the dreary wilds of Connaught, their lands being given to English settlers. The bitterest curse an Irishman can use to-day is the "Curse of Cromwell."

3. Cromwell in Scotland.—While Cromwell was thus subduing the enemies of the Commonwealth in Ireland, in England its affairs were being managed by men like Vane, who was at the head of the navy, with Admiral Blake as his chief officer. John Milton, the great Puritan poet, was Latin Secretary of the Council, and Bradshaw was its president. These were able and honest men; but many of the members of Parliament and the Council were selfish and corrupt, and used their positions to put their friends into fat offices, and to satisfy their own ambition and greed. They were unwilling to have a Parliament elected that represented the people, and were suspicious and jealous of the army and of all who had the interests of the country at heart. But any discontent with Parliament had to be put aside until a new danger which had arisen was removed. For Charles II. had agreed to become a Presbyterian, and to uphold the Covenant, and the Scotch had recalled him as their king. It would not do to allow Charles to march into England with a Scotch army, so Cromwell marched north with an English army into Scotland. The people fled at his approach, having heard of his doings in Ireland, and Cromwell found himself, when near Edinburgh, hemmed in between the hills and the sea

with no supplies for his army, save what could be brought from his ships which followed along the coast. When he reached Dunbar, it seemed as if he would have to put his men on board his ships and return, for David Leslie, the crafty Scotch general, had entrenched himself in the Lammermuir Hills, and cut off Cromwell's escape by land. Leslie for several days refused to come down from the hills and fight, preferring to starve his enemy out. At last, overborne by the urgent demands of some Presbyterian ministers in his camp, he left his vantage ground and moved down into the plain to give Cromwell battle. Cromwell was delighted, and early the following morning, September 3rd, 1650, before the Scotch were well awake, he flung himself on the Covenanters with the cry, "The Lord of Hosts, the Lord of Hosts." In one short hour the victory was won; 3,000 men were killed, 10,000 were taken prisoners, and Leslie's army was a thing of the past. The war lingered for another year, for Charles had found support in the north, and Cromwell found it difficult to bring him to a decisive conflict. Finally, he left the way open into England, and at once Charles began to march southwards, hoping the Royalists would rise in his favour. But though Charles had many friends in England, they were afraid to give him any help, and so, when he reached Worcester, he found himself surrounded by 30,000 men, with only 16,000 at his back. Cromwell had pursued and overtaken him, and once more the terrible Puritan army dealt out death and destruction to their enemies. The battle was fought on the anniversary of that of Dunbar, and Charles' troops, after a desperate defence, were totally defeated. It was, as Cromwell said, "a crowning mercy," for no more risings against the Commonwealth took place as long as Cromwell lived. With great difficulty, Charles escaped to France, in a little collier vessel.

4. The Dutch War.—Foreign nations now saw that the Commonwealth could hold its own against its enemies, and began to treat it with respect. Blake had driven Rupert from the seas, and Sir Harry Vane determined to build up the English navy at the expense of the Dutch, who had aided Charles. So, in 1651, a "Navigation Act" was passed which forbade foreign vessels from bringing into England any goods other than the products of their own country. This Act was aimed at the Dutch who did a large

carrying trade for other nations. So much ill-feeling was created by this measure that a war broke out, in which Van Tromp for the Dutch, and Blake for the English, fought several fierce naval battles. Van Tromp was killed in 1653, and the supremacy of the seas passed over to England, where it has remained ever since.

5. Expulsion of the Long Parliament.—One object of the Dutch war was to make the fleet strong at the expense of the army. The army was dissatisfied with Parliament, partly because it had not been paid, but, chiefly because its officers saw that the members were unwilling to have parliament dissolved and a new one, representing the people, elected. When it was clear that Parliament was not going to allow a new election except on terms that would give the old members the right to say who should sit with them, Cromwell decided to take prompt measures. Marching down to Westminster with a regiment of musketeers, he turned the members out, locked the doors, and put the key in his pocket. "Not a dog barked," as Cromwell said afterwards, at this daring deed; and the nation felt that what Cromwell had done was necessary and right.

6. Instrument of Government.—And now England had neither king nor parliament, and order had to be maintained by Cromwell and his army, until some form of government could be agreed upon. An assembly, chosen by the congregations of the Independents, was convened at Westminster by Cromwell, and it proceeded to arrange for a real Parliament. This assembly got the nick-name of "Barebone's Parliament" from Praise-God Barebones, one of its members. Its members were honest, zealous men, who tried to do much in the way of removing long standing evils, and so made many enemies. Finding that it could not carry out its good intentions, Barebone's Parliament resigned its power into the hands of Cromwell. Before doing so, however, it drew up a new Constitution called the "Instrument of Government," and made Cromwell Lord Protector. For the next ten months Cromwell ruled alone, and on his own authority made many good laws. He ended the war with Holland, and made treaties, favourable to English trade, with other countries. He was tolerant to all religious bodies, although he would not let the royalist clergy preach in the churches, nor allow the Book of Common Prayer to be used. He united Scotland to England, and the

Scotch said that his eight years of rule were "years of peace and prosperity."

In 1654 a new Parliament was elected, with members in it from Scotland and Ireland, and so was the first united Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland. This Parliament was chosen more fairly than most Parliaments, but Roman Catholics and royalists were shut out. It at once began to settle the affairs of the nation, and to make Cromwell's laws legal. Had it been left to carry out its will, England might have been spared many troubles; but Cromwell began to fear it would interfere with his authority, and, unwisely, dissolved it.

7. Cromwell Rules Alone.—Cromwell now ruled for a time without a Parliament, and though this rule was a tyranny, yet it was a wise and merciful tyranny. He knew many were discontented, and, to prevent risings, he divided England into military districts, over which he placed major-generals who were responsible for their order and good government. Cromwell would allow no persecution, and even the Quaker and the Jew found in him a protector and friend. It was at this time the Jews were allowed to return to England.

8. Petition and Advice.—Although Cromwell ruled by force, he did not wish to be a mere tyrant. He longed to see England once more contented and well governed; but he feared the royalists would take advantage of the quarrels in Parliament to bring about a restoration of the Stuarts. Nevertheless, he called a second Parliament, in 1656, but excluded all who had not a certificate from his Council. This Parliament offered to make Cromwell king, and Cromwell would have taken the title had not the army been so strongly opposed. Cromwell contented himself with the power of a king, which was given by a new Constitution, the "Petition and Advice," drawn up by Parliament. This Constitution provided for a House of Lords to be named by Cromwell, and Cromwell was given the right to choose his successor. For a short time there was peace, and then it was found that the Commons would not work with the Lords, and the republicans in the Parliament began to plot against Cromwell himself. Once more he dissolved Parliament, and for the rest of his life ruled alone, although he was planning to call a third Parliament when death came to him.

Never, except in the time of Elizabeth, had England been so respected abroad as in these years. Jamaica was taken from Spain, 1655, and France gave up Dunkirk as the price of Cromwell's aid against Spain. The Duke of Savoy, at Cromwell's command, was forced to cease persecuting the Vaudois, and in him oppressed Protestants everywhere found a powerful protector.

9. State of the Country.—But peace and power, while it brought prosperity, did not bring content. The Puritan rule was hard, cold, and joyless. Innocent, as well as harmful, amusements were suppressed. Cock-fighting and bear-baiting, to the Puritans, were no worse than dancing round the Maypole, and eating mince pies. Theatres were closed, and Christmas revels were forbidden. The Puritans tried to make everybody religious, earnest, and sober. This they could not do, and people began to long for the return of the good old days, and some began to wish for the death of Cromwell. Plots were formed to kill him, and in his latter days he wore armour constantly under his clothing.

10. Death of Cromwell.—But the end was near. Cromwell's health suffered much from his fear of assassination, and from his anxiety about the future of the nation. Then his favourite daughter, Elizabeth, died, and this broke the strong man's heart. Ague seized him, and although prayers went up everywhere for his recovery, he passed away on the anniversary of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, Sept. 3rd, 1658. He was buried with royal honors in Westminster Abbey, and no greater ruler was there laid to rest than the "uncrowned King of England."

11. Restoration of Charles II.—So great was the fear of Cromwell, even in death, that his eldest son, Richard, was allowed to succeed him as quietly as if he had been the rightful heir to a crown. Richard was a weak, good-natured, worthless man, and soon lost the respect of the army, which forced him to dissolve the Parliament which had just been elected, and to recall the fragment of the Long Parliament that Cromwell had driven out. But, as the Long Parliament could not agree with the army, it was again expelled. In the meantime, Richard, after holding office ten months, had to resign the Protectorship, and he gladly retired into private life. It was evident that England was drifting into anarchy, and

that something must be done to save her from strife and civil war. General Monk, who commanded an army in Scotland, saw what was taking place and marched down into England. He kept his own counsel, and everywhere he went proclaimed his loyalty to the Commonwealth, but demanded a "free Parliament." General Lambert tried to stop his march but failed, and Monk entered London. The Rump now dissolved itself, and a Convention Parliament (one called without a king's writ), met, which immediately sent for Charles II. to come and rule. Monk had prepared everything, and Charles was waiting for the invitation. He had issued a proclamation from Breda promising religious freedom and a general pardon; but he was allowed to return without any pledges for his future good conduct.

On the 25th May, 1660, he landed, and on the 29th he entered London amid the rejoicings of a great multitude. Cromwell's veterans looked on with sad hearts, remembering the cause for which they suffered so much, and then, a few months later, went quietly back to their farms and shops.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE RESTORATION.

1. **Charles II.**—The English people were glad to have kingship restored, for they were tired of the hard, stern rule of the Puritans. Charles II. was also glad to get back to England, where he could get money to spend on his wicked pleasures. When on "his travels," as he humorously called his exile, his life had been full of hardship, for he was driven from court to court, and had to depend for support on his devoted adherents in England. Now when he came back, it was with the resolve never to leave England again. He loved pleasure above all things, and surrounded himself with a court that for open profligacy has no equal in English history. Beautiful and abandoned women were his chosen companions, and to gratify their whims and tastes the public money was lavishly spent. Charles was a shrewd, witty, talkative, easy-going

man, who cared little for Church or State, so long as he had his own way, and meddling people did not pry into how he squandered his subjects' money. His policy was to keep on the throne at all hazards, and never to allow public feeling to run so high as to imperil his position. Yet like all the Stuarts he loved power, and by occasionally yielding to great waves of popular indignation, he managed to do much as he pleased in spite of the efforts made to keep him in check. In religion, he professed to belong to the English Church, but he was secretly, if anything, a Roman Catholic, and used his position to favour that cause.

2. Clarendon's Administration.—Charles' first chief adviser was Edward Hyde, Lord Clarendon, a faithful follower who had been his tutor and companion in exile. He was a moderate royalist, and strongly attached to the Church. The Parliament that recalled Charles had in it many Presbyterians and moderate royalists, and was not disposed to go to extremes. It contented itself with putting to death thirteen of the men who had taken part in the execution of Charles I., and with taking from their graves in Westminster Abbey the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton and Bradshaw, and hanging them in chains. It then passed an Act of Indemnity, pardoning all offenders except Vane and Lambert. The king had promised Vane his life, but afterwards had him executed, coolly remarking that he was too dangerous to be allowed to live. The king's income was fixed for life at £1,200,000 a year, and he agreed to give up certain feudal rights which were vexatious to the landowners. The army was disbanded, but Charles, to make sure of his safety, kept 5000 men in his pay, and this was the beginning of a standing army in England. Then the Convention Parliament was dissolved, and a regular Parliament elected.

The new Parliament was composed mainly of Cavaliers, whose loyalty was so great that even the king found it troublesome. It was eager to avenge Charles I's death, and many that were spared by the Convention Parliament were now punished.

3. State of the Nation.—A period of revelry and wickedness now began at the court and among those who were brought into contact with it. Theatres were again opened, and the most licentious plays were acted in the presence of the king and his friends, who applauded and rewarded the playwrights and actors. The old

amusements of the people were restored, and once more the village green was the scene of mirth and jollity. It seemed as if Puritanism was dead, so great was the change from the days of Cromwell. Nevertheless, the sober middle class of England was still Puritan, and the earnestness and strong sense of duty which marked Puritan teaching left a lasting impression on the English people. Meanwhile many improvements had been introduced during the preceding fifty years. In James I's reign, the post office for foreign letters had been established; silk-weaving had been encouraged; low-lying lands had been drained; and improvements had been made in agriculture. A little later, stage-coaches began to run between the chief towns, and letters were carried more frequently from place to place. The north of England was thinly inhabited, and highwaymen levied toll at pleasure from travellers over the lonely moors. Even judges had to be protected while going on circuit.

4. Religious Persecution.—And now the Puritans and Presbyterians were to find out how much truth there was in Charles' promise of religious freedom. In Scotland, where Charles had signed the Covenant, bishops were forced upon the people, and the Covenanters were fiercely persecuted and hunted down. The Cavalier Parliament was resolved that no form of religious worship should be allowed except that of the English Church in the time of Laud; so it passed, in 1631, a "Corporation Act" which compelled all officials in the towns and cities to take an oath of non-resistance to the king, and to receive the sacrament in the English Church. The next year, 1662, an "Act of Uniformity" was passed, which allowed no minister to preach or act as pastor unless he was ordained by a bishop, and used the Prayer-Book. So, on St. Bartholomew's Day, Aug. 24th, 1662, nearly 2,000 of the Puritan and Presbyterian clergy then in the English Church gave up their livings rather than comply with these conditions. They formed congregations of their own, which became known as "Dissenters," the name yet given to all Protestants in England who do not belong to the English Church.

Not content with these cruel laws, a "Conventicle Act" was passed in 1664, forbidding the Dissenters from worshipping in chapels or conventicles; and in 1665, the "Five Mile Act" forbade their ministers from preaching or teaching within five miles of any

town or village. This was done because most of the Dissenters lived in the towns and villages. Soon the prisons were filled with men who refused to stop preaching and ministering to their flocks. Among others who thus suffered was John Bunyan, the famous author of "Pilgrim's Progress." Bunyan spent twelve years in Bedford jail, earning a living for himself and family by making metal tags for laces, and employing his spare moments in writing books. It was in this reign, when old, poor, and blind, that John Milton, the great Puritan poet, wrote his "Paradise Lost." Bunyan and Milton are among the greatest writers of the 17th century, and both truly represent the best types of Puritanism. The fierce persecution of this time drove many to America, and among other colonies founded was that by William Penn, the Quaker, who bought from the Indians the right to settle in Pennsylvania.

5. Dutch War.—At the beginning of his reign Charles married Katharine of Portugal, and received as her dowry Bombay in India, and the fortress of Tangier in Morocco. This marriage displeased the English, as the queen was a Roman Catholic. In another way Charles angered his people: he sold the fortress of Dunkirk, which Cromwell had gained, to Louis XIV of France for money to spend on his low pleasures.

Not long after this, in 1665, a war broke out between England and Holland. These two nations were keen rivals for the supremacy of the sea, and Charles disliked the Dutch because they had driven him from their capital when he was in exile. One dispute led to another, until the vessels of the two nations came into conflict. A battle was fought off Lowestoft in Suffolk, in which the English won a victory; but they gained little by it, for the victory was not followed up by the Admiral, the Duke of York. The fleet was not kept in good condition for war; much of the money voted by Parliament being spent by Charles on unworthy favourites.

6. The Plague and the Fire of London.—And now a terrible calamity came upon London. The summer of 1665 was very hot, and the streets of London were very narrow and filthy. So when the plague travelled from the East to England, it found in London plenty of material on which to work. It broke out in May and raged till winter, during which time more than 100,000 people

died. Every person that could get away fled from London in terror, leaving but few to care for the sick and dying. To add to her misfortunes, a great fire broke out in London the following year, 1666, in which over 13,000 houses and public buildings were destroyed, among others St. Paul's Cathedral. The fire was a blessing in disguise, for it burnt down many old wooden houses, and helped to clear away the remains of the plague. After this better houses were built, the streets were made wider, and purer water was brought into the city.

Meanwhile the Dutch war went on. Charles neglected his fleet and spent the public money on his court, and when Clarendon asked for a grant to carry on the war, Parliament insisted on knowing what had become of former grants. Charles now thought it best to make peace with the Dutch, but while arranging the terms the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway and burnt three men-of-war. This was looked upon as a national disgrace, and Clarendon became so unpopular that he had to leave the country.

7. The Cabal.—Charles now took for his chief advisers five men, the initials of whose names made the word "cabal." These were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale, and as their intrigues and base actions made them hateful to the people, the word "cabal" has ever since had a bad meaning. They were made the tools of the king, and many of their misdeeds were due to the secret intrigues of Charles with Louis XIV. of France. Louis was the most powerful king in Europe, and he had cast covetous eyes on the Netherlands which belonged to Spain. He wanted Charles to help him to get this rich territory, and to prevent England and Holland from interfering with his plans. Holland became alarmed at Louis' encroachments, and succeeded in 1668 in getting England and Sweden to join her in a "Triple Alliance," which for the time forced Louis to keep the peace. And now a most shameful thing was done by the king. Charles, in spite of the "Triple Alliance" treaty, made a secret treaty with Louis at Dover, in 1670, by which he agreed to help Louis against Holland and to declare himself a Roman Catholic, in return for a large pension from Louis and the aid of French troops in case the English people should rebel. Clifford and Arlington, who were secretly Roman Catholics, knew of this

treaty; but the other members of the Cabal were kept in ignorance. Then followed another disgraceful act. The goldsmiths and bankers of London had lent the king about £1,300,000, expecting to be repaid out of the revenue. Charles now refused to pay back this money, and so brought ruin on the lenders, who had borrowed the money from others. This money was not repaid till William III. came to the throne.

8. Declaration of Indulgence and the Test Act.—To carry out part of his agreement with Louis, Charles, in 1672, declared war with Holland, and issued a "Declaration of Indulgence," which allowed all Dissenters and Roman Catholics to worship as they pleased, and released from prison thousands of the victims of religious persecution. Bunyan was released at this time from his long imprisonment in Bedford jail. The war with Holland was not successful, for William of Orange, the brave young leader of the Dutch, opened the dykes of his native land, and let in the water from the sea. In this way he succeeded in forcing his enemies to retire.

Charles now had to summon his Parliament to get more money. The Commons were very angry that Charles should suspend the laws against Dissenters and Roman Catholics, and they forced him to withdraw his "Declaration of Indulgence," and to give his assent to a "Test Act" which compelled every man holding office to take an oath against transubstantiation, and to receive the sacrament according to the rites of the English Church. The Duke of York avowed himself a Roman Catholic, and had to give up his command of the fleet. Clifford and Arlington, also, had to leave the king's service. Ashley, now Earl of Shaftesbury, became the leader of the "country party" in Parliament, and sought to compel the king to give religious freedom to the Protestant Dissenters, but not to Roman Catholics.

9. Danby Administration.—Charles now thought it prudent to please the Church party, and therefore chose the Earl of Danby as his minister. He made peace with Holland, and allowed Danby to arrange, much against Louis XIV's wishes, a marriage between Mary, daughter of James, Duke of York, and William of Orange, her cousin. This pleased the people, for as Charles had no legitimate child, and James had no son, it was expected that Mary,

who was a Protestant, would become Queen of England. Nevertheless, Charles continued to intrigue with Louis, and made the marriage a means of getting a larger grant from the French king. He even persuaded Danby to write to Louis a letter asking for money, and promising to prevent his Parliament from going to war with France.

10. The "Popish Plot," 1678.—Although these intrigues were kept secret, the people became uneasy and felt they were betrayed. While they were in this humour, a low scoundrel, called Titus Oates, who had been a Jesuit but had left that body, came forward with a strange tale. He said there was a plot to kill Charles and make the Duke of York king. Oates told his story to Sir Edmund Bury Godfrey, a London magistrate, and soon afterwards Godfrey was found dead in a ditch. How he came to his death no one ever knew; but people said that he was killed by the Roman Catholics to prevent the "Popish Plot" from coming out. This caused great excitement, which was increased by the discovery of some papers belonging to Coleman, the secretary of the Duchess of York, in which references were made to some hope of the Roman Catholics. Parliament, in its alarm, passed an act preventing Roman Catholics from becoming members; and Oates, Bedloe, and other perjured witnesses swore away the lives of many innocent victims. Judges and juries believed the most ridiculous tales of plots, and condemned the accused on the most trivial and contradictory evidence. The most illustrious victim was Lord Stafford, who perished in 1681. Charles did not believe these tales, but laughed at the whole matter, and allowed the popular frenzy to spend itself in putting to death men of his own creed. Shaftesbury helped the plot along for his own ends, and when, in 1679, Danby's letter to Louis XIV., asking for a pension for Charles, was laid on the table of the House of Commons, he had his revenge. Danby was impeached and driven from office, Parliament was dissolved for the first time in seventeen years, and Shaftesbury became chief minister.

11. Exclusion Bill.—Amidst this excitement a new Parliament was elected in 1679. Under Shaftesbury's leadership it brought in a bill to exclude James, Duke of York, from the throne. But Charles, to save James, dissolved Parliament, not, however, before

it had passed the famous "Habeas Corpus Act." This act, next in importance to Magna Charta, prevents people from being arrested without a proper warrant, and compels gaolers to show on what authority a person is detained in prison. Prisoners must be brought to trial within a reasonable time, and if their offences are bailable, they must be allowed their freedom.

Parliament met again in 1679, more determined than ever to exclude James from the throne. An "Exclusion Bill" was passed in the Commons, but thrown out of the House of Lords through the influence of Lord Halifax. Shaftesbury had made the great mistake of selecting the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles, as the king's successor. Monmouth was popular, but honest people thought it a shameful thing to exclude from the throne, Mary, Princess of Orange, for an illegitimate son of the king. Then began a great struggle, in which for the first time Charles stood firm against his Parliament. He refused to abandon James, although it looked, at times, as if there would be another civil war.

Men now divided into two great parties; one in favor of the exclusion of James, and the other opposed to it. The first became known as "Whigs," and the second as "Tories." *Whig* means whey or sour milk, and was a name given to some rebels in Ayrshire in Scotland. *Tory* means a bog-robber, and was the name applied to some outlaws in Ireland. These names, at first given in hatred and contempt, for a long time were used to denote the two great political parties in England; the one supposed to favour the *People*, the other the *Crown*. At last, Charles called a Parliament at Oxford, in 1681, and many of the Whigs went to it armed. This created alarm, and people began to ask if there was to be another civil war. Charles offered to make the Princess of Orange regent after his death, and this seemed so reasonable that many went over to the side of Charles and James. He now dissolved Parliament, and it met no more in his reign.

12. Rye-House Plot.—From this time onward Charles did much as he pleased. Shaftesbury was charged with treason, but the Grand Jury of Middlesex would not bring in a bill against him. Then Charles took away the charter of London, and appointed the Lord Mayor and sheriffs himself. Shaftesbury knew that the king's sheriffs would pack the jury against him, and he fled from

the country. After he had gone a number of his friends formed a plot in favour of Monmouth; but, while they were arranging their plans, a band of desperate men formed another plot to murder the king and the Duke of York at the Rye House, a lonely spot in Hertfordshire. This latter plot was discovered, and the crown lawyers tried to make it appear that the Whig leaders were connected with it. They were innocent, but they knew the judges and juries would be chosen so as to convict them. Monmouth escaped to Holland, Essex killed himself, and Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney were executed. In those days a prisoner was not allowed to have a lawyer to defend him, and so Russell, aided by his devoted wife, who sat beside him at the trial and took notes, conducted his own defence.

13. Death of Charles II.—All opposition to James was now at an end, and he returned to England from Scotland where he had been hunting down and torturing the poor Covenanters. The charters of many towns were taken away, and this put the power of life and death, and the choice of members of parliament into the hands of the officers chosen by the king. Charles was again in the pay of Louis, and besides kept several thousand men as a standing army. The clergy preached the duty of "passive obedience" to the king, and it seemed as if English liberty was near its end. In this hour of her great peril England was saved by the death of Charles, in 1685. When near his end he received the rites of the Roman Catholic Church at the hands of a priest. His last words were an apology for "being so unconscionably long in dying," and a request not to let his favourite mistress, Nell Gwynne, starve.

So ended the reign of the "merry monarch" who

"Never said a foolish thing
And never did a wise one,"

unless we except the encouragement he gave to science by helping to found the Royal Society of England.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE REVOLUTION.

1. James II.—James, Duke of York, now became king. He promised to support the English Church, and people thought that as he had honestly acknowledged he was a Roman Catholic when the Test Act was passed he would be as good as his word. He was known to be stubborn and narrow-minded, but at the same time he was believed to be sincere and well meaning. His first Parliament was as loyal as he could wish, for it was elected at a time when the tide of public opinion had turned against his opponents, and had been chosen under the control of sheriffs appointed by the Crown in the towns and cities from which charters had been taken.

It was soon seen that James did not intend to support the Established Church, for before he was crowned he went publicly to mass in his own chapel. He told the Bishops they must stop the English Church clergy from preaching against the Roman Catholic religion, and he opened the prison doors to all who were confined for religion's sake. This last act was good in itself, but it was done against the law of the land, and proved that James did not intend to abide by the laws.

2. Monmouth's Rebellion.—When Parliament met it voted the King an income of two million pounds a year for life. It was anxious to show James how loyal it was, for a rebellion had just broken out to make Monmouth king. Monmouth and the Duke of Argyle had escaped to Holland toward the close of the reign of Charles II., and were now urged by their friends in England and Scotland to return. They were led to believe that most of the English and Scotch people would gladly join them in driving James from the throne. Finally, Argyle crossed over to Scotland, and a little later Monmouth landed in England. Argyle's clan, the Campbells, rose at his call, but the Covenanters were afraid to rebel, and the rising was soon crushed. Argyle was taken prisoner and executed; and his followers were cruelly punished, many being sold into slavery in America.

Monmouth landed at Lyme, in Dorset, and thousands flocked to

greet the popular and handsome young Duke. He marched to Exeter, and thence to Taunton, where he was received with rejoicings by the lower classes. The gentry, nobles, and clergy were against him, for they hoped that when James died he would be succeeded by his daughter Mary, the Princess of Orange. Soon James' troops under Lord Feversham, and Captain Churchill, were moving against the poorly-armed followers of Monmouth. On the night of July 5th, 1685, Monmouth endeavored to surprise the royal troops at Sedgemoor. When he reached their lines he found they were protected by a deep trench, full of water, and although he had some success at first, James' soldiers soon rallied and easily routed his brave peasants and colliers. Two days after Monmouth was found concealed in a ditch, half-starved. He was brought to London, and, although he begged his uncle to spare him, his plea for mercy was not listened to, and he was executed.

3. The Bloody Assizes.—Perhaps nothing gives us a better idea of James' revengeful disposition than the events which followed the Battle of Sedgemoor. Colonel Kirke was left in command of some troops in the neighbourhood of the battle, and he at once began to hang whole batches of prisoners, without troubling himself to find out their share in the rebellion. To add to their miseries, the people of the western counties had Judge Jeffreys sent among them. His mission was to convict as many as possible, and to sentence them to death. In the "Bloody Assizes" which followed, 320 people were hanged, and over 800 sold into slavery in the West Indies. This brutal judge browbeat witnesses and juries to secure sentences against the prisoners, and made the unfortunate, and often innocent victims, the butts of his coarse jokes and his savage insolence. Among those who suffered at his hands was Alice Lisle, an aged lady, whose only crime was hiding two fugitives from the battle-field, thinking they were persecuted puritan preachers fleeing from their enemies. Some were spared through their friends bribing the judge and the queen's "maids of honor;" others were given to the courtiers to be sold into slavery.

4. James violates the Test Act.—Jeffreys was rewarded for his infamous conduct with the position of Lord Chancellor; and James thought it a favourable occasion to increase his standing

army, and to put Roman Catholic officers in command. This was against the Test Act; but James cared nothing for the law, and replaced those advisers who found fault with his actions by men like Sunderland and Jeffreys. This made the English people uneasy, and when in October, 1685, Louis XIV. revoked the Edict of Nantes, and took away from his Protestant subjects their right to religious freedom, James' subjects became very much alarmed. Louis' persecution of the Huguenots was a good thing for England, for many of them found refuge there, and brought with them their skill in silk-weaving and other industries. When Parliament met it complained of the violation of the Test Act, but James, now grown bold, prorogued Parliament, and two years after dissolved it. This was the last Parliament that met in his reign. In this way he managed to get rid of an unpleasant opposition; but he could not prevent people from talking about the way the law was being broken to please Roman Catholics.

After Parliament was dissolved he asked his judges if he had the right to dispense with the Test Act, and when four of them said he had not, he dismissed them from the bench, and appointed others in their stead. He then had a test case brought before the judges, and they decided that James could, if he wished, do away with laws against Roman Catholics. James now felt free to make all the appointments he wished, and began to turn leading Protestants out of office, and to put Roman Catholics in their places. His own brothers-in-law, the sons of Clarendon, were dismissed because they would not change their religion to please him. Lord Tyrconnel was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland in place of the elder Clarendon, and the younger Clarendon was dismissed from his post of High Treasurer.

A new court was now called into existence to control the Church. This was the Ecclesiastical Commission, which had for its head Judge Jeffreys, and concerned itself with the acts of the English Church clergy. The king built Roman Catholic chapels in London, and expected his lords to attend him when he went to service; but most of them refused. Orders of monks began to settle in London, and a Jesuit school was opened. All these things made James' subjects angry, and to overawe the people of London, James placed an army of 13,000 men in a camp at Hounslow. He next published

a "Declaration of Indulgence," in 1687, hoping to get, by his liberality, the support of the persecuted Dissenters. Some were glad to get their freedom, and praised James for his kindness and justice; but the more thoughtful saw that if the king could do away with one law, then he could do away with all laws, and this would make the government of England a despotism.

5. Attack on the Universities.—James' own friends saw that in his zeal for his church he was doing it harm, and advised him to be more prudent and cautious. But James thought he was right and would take no advice. His next step was an attack on the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, about the only places in England where a good education could be obtained. The clergy and the sons of the nobles and gentry were educated there, but no student could take a degree or hold an office in these colleges unless he belonged to the English Church. James wished to open the Universities to Roman Catholics, and so placed at the head of one college a Roman Catholic, and when a vacancy occurred in the headship of Magdalen College, he told the Fellows to elect Dr. Parker, also a Roman Catholic. The Fellows refused, and James drove them forth from the college walls. Cambridge University was also attacked, and men began to fear that the chief seats of learning would soon be under the control of the Roman Catholics.

6. Birth of James the Pretender.—It was at this time, in 1687, that Parliament was dissolved, and James began his preparations for a new election. He asked the Lord-Lieutenants and sheriffs in the counties to send up members who would vote to repeal the Test Act; and when he met with a general refusal, he dismissed them from their offices, and replaced them by others.

Many were disposed to bear patiently James' tyranny, in the hope that his reign would soon be at an end, and then his daughter Mary would undo all his tyrannical acts. But this hope disappeared when it was given forth that a son was born to James, in June 1688. It was now felt there was likely to be a succession of Roman Catholic kings, and in that event, there was great danger England would lose her religion and freedom. It was then resolved that William of Orange should be invited to come over with an army to help to drive James from the throne. The nation was afraid to rise against the king, for it remembered the terrible vengeance

that followed Monmouth's rebellion. So messengers were sent to William to ask for his aid, and he promised to go to England if Louis XIV. did not invade his country. Louis, as it happened, sent his army against Germany, and this left the way open for William to go to England.

7. Declaration of Indulgence.—In the meantime James had resolved on issuing another "Declaration of Indulgence," and, as his former "declaration" had been little heeded, he ordered that the clergy should read it from their pulpits. Most of the clergy refused, and seven bishops, with Archbishop Sancroft at their head, drew up a respectful petition to James asking him to withdraw his order to the clergy. When James read this petition he was so angry that he had the bishops charged with libel and sent to the Tower.

8. Trial of the Bishops.—The bishops were in due time brought to trial, and thousands came flocking to London to see they suffered no wrong. So great was the anxiety to hear the trial that crowds stood for miles around the court. Able lawyers, like Somers, defended the bishops, and showed that the petition was not a libel at all; and the jury, after a night's discussion, at last agreed upon a verdict of "Not Guilty." Such a scene of excitement as followed is seldom witnessed. Bells rang, bonfires blazed, the people thronged the churches, and returned thanks in sobs of joy. James' own soldiers in Hounslow camp took up the cheers of the multitude, greatly to James' dismay and chagrin.

9. The Revolution.—And now Admiral Herbert went in disguise to Holland with an invitation from Whigs and Tories, Churchmen and Dissenters, the Army and Navy, Peers and Commoners. William began to prepare an army and fleet, and issued a proclamation to the nation that he was coming to restore its rights and liberties. James was now thoroughly alarmed, and hastily began to undo his illegal acts; but it was too late. William landed, November 5th, 1688, at Torbay, with 13,000 men, and though, at first, coldly received, he was soon joined by the leading men of England. James thought his forces were strong enough to defeat his opponent; but, as the armies approached each other, Churchill took his troops over to William, and James saw he was deserted. Even his daughter Anne and her husband left him, and nothing remained for James but to send his wife and child to France, and

make his own way there as best he could. William was glad to have him go, and left the way open for his escape. So, on Dec. 23rd, 1688, James found his way to the court of Louis XIV., and England saw him no more.

10. Declaration of Rights.—Before William reached London some rioting took place, and an assembly formed of some members of the Commons in the time of Charles II., the Aldermen of London, and a few others, joined the House of Lords in asking him to take charge of affairs and keep order until a Parliament could decide what was best to be done. William then called a Convention Parliament in January, 1689, which, after considerable discussion, agreed that William and Mary should be joint King and Queen, and that William only should rule. It was now thought wise to make the new king and queen agree to certain principles before they were crowned; and so Somers drew up for Parliament a "Declaration of Rights," which after William became king was changed into a law. This "Declaration," after reciting the misdeeds of James, declared that the king had no power to suspend or dispense with the laws, nor raise money, nor keep a standing army without consent of Parliament; that subjects may petition the king; that elections of members must be free, and that free speech in Parliament must be allowed; and that Parliaments should meet frequently to redress grievances. The Bill of Rights afterwards added "that no Papist should ever again hold the Crown of England."

William and Mary agreed to be bound by these conditions, and were crowned April 11th, 1689.

CHAPTER XX.

RETURN TO PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

1. William III.—The "New Monarchy" was now at an end, and government by Parliament, as in the days of the Plantagenets, was at last restored. The Bill of Rights gave the crown to William and Mary, and their children (if they had any), failing which it was

to go to the Princess Anne and her children. So we see that William's right to the crown was given by Parliament, and henceforth no sovereign ruled by any other title than a parliamentary one.

William III. was in every respect a remarkable man. He was an unfortunate general, yet one who succeeded by his calmness and courage in the hour of defeat in wresting gain out of his losses. He had been brought up in a land which had suffered greatly from religious persecution, and so had learned to be liberal and tolerant to people of all creeds. When quite young he had been surrounded by enemies who watched his words and actions, and he had formed the habit of keeping his own counsel and trusting but few. This, added to a disposition naturally distrustful, caused him to appear to the English people sullen and morose. When it is remembered that William suffered almost continually from ill-health, and that when in England he was living among men who constantly sought to betray him, we have an explanation of his being so unsociable and suspicious, and why he was so unpopular with his English subjects. Yet, while the English did not like his foreign ways and his foreign favorites, they knew that he alone stood between them and the loss of their religion and their political rights, and this caused them to give him their support in the days when he was most disliked.

2. Early Difficulties.—But William was not accepted as king by all his subjects. In England, some of the clergy who believed in the Divine Right of kings refused to take the oath of allegiance to him, and, in consequence, were turned out of their offices. They then formed themselves into a party called the "Non-Jurors," and for a century elected their own bishops. The "Non-Jurors" caused a good deal of trouble, for they joined with the friends of James, or Jacobites (from *Jacobus*, Latin for James), in plots to have the Stuarts restored.

In Scotland, Parliament agreed to accept William as king on the condition that Presbyterianism should be restored. The English Church clergy in Scotland would now have been severely treated by the Covenanters, had not William interfered to stop the "rabbling" that began with the downfall of James. In the Highlands, the people were mostly Roman Catholics, and there an old follower of

James and fierce persecutor of the Covenanters, Graham of Claverhouse, now Viscount Dundee, raised an army, which at the Pass of Killiecrankie, in July 1689, swept before it William's troops under General Mackay. But in the hour of victory, Claverhouse was killed, and then, the Highlanders collecting all the booty they could, separated for their homes. Troops were now stationed at different posts in the Highlands and order was once more restored.

3. Massacre of Glencoe.—The Highland chiefs were gradually won over to take the oath of allegiance, and were promised a full pardon if their submission was made before the 1st January, 1692. When that time came, it was found all had taken the oath of allegiance except chief Ian Macdonald, of the Macdonalds of Glencoe. He was too proud to yield till the last moment, and then he went to the wrong place to take the oath. So it was after the 1st of January when he made his submission; nevertheless he was assured that he would not be molested. But Dalrymple, Master (or Lord) of Stair, who ruled Scotland for William, thought it an excellent opportunity to make an example of this unruly clan, Macdonald. He got William to agree to send troops into the valley of Glencoe, to "extirpate this band of thieves." To make sure work, Dalrymple sent the foemen of the Macdonalds, the Campbells of Argyle. When the soldiers reached Glencoe they were treated with true Highland kindness and hospitality by the Macdonalds. Days were passed in feasting and dancing; and then, early one morning, in the depth of winter, the soldiers surrounded the huts of their hosts and began the work of murder. Soon thirty lay dead on the snow, and of those that escaped half-clad to the hills, the greater number perished of cold and hunger. This terrible deed has never been forgotten by the people of the Highlands, and William's fair fame received a lasting stain by his share in this cruel and teacherous massacre.

4. Civil War in Ireland.—Before James was driven out of England he had put Ireland under the control of Tyrconnel, who raised an army of 20,000 men to aid James in case his English subjects grew rebellious. Now that he was exiled, James crossed over from France to Ireland with money and officers lent him by Louis XIV. The Irish, as a people, gave him a hearty welcome, and he was at once recognized as king throughout the greater part

of Ireland. The small body of English and Scotch settlers in the island was much alarmed at James' landing, for they feared another massacre such as had taken place in 1641. As many as could escaped to England; but in the north, they gathered together for mutual aid at Enniskillen, and at Londonderry on Lough Foyle. James proceeded to attack Londonderry, which was in a wretched condition to stand a siege. Nevertheless the people of the city, under the leadership of the Rev. Geo. Walker and Major Baker, were so brave and resolute in its defence that James had to fall back on the plan of cutting off its food supply. To prevent aid coming from England by sea, a boom made of logs of timber fastened end to end was stretched across the mouth of the Foyle. English vessels sailed up to the boom, within sight of the starving garrison, and then retreated. For one hundred and five days the siege lasted, until the garrison was reduced to eating hides and leather. At last, an order was sent from England that the vessels must make an effort to relieve the garrison. On the 30th July, 1689, two ships sailed straight for the boom which gave way, and then sailing up to the starving city, they threw in a supply of provisions. James now saw it would be of no use to continue the siege and retreated with his army. Almost at the same time, Colonel Wolfe defeated an Irish army at Newton Butler, and this freed the rest of Ireland from James' troops.

James now went to Dublin, where he set up his government. As money was scarce he met his expenses with brass money, which was to be changed for gold when he once more became king of England. In the meantime William was busy elsewhere, and had to leave the war in Ireland to his general Marshal Schomberg. Early in 1690, Louis sent a large force to help James, and then William saw he would have to go to Ireland himself, and take an army with him. He crossed over in June, and on the 1st July, met James at the famous Battle of the Boyne, where William's daring and courage won him a great victory. James watched from a distance the battle going against his followers and then fled in terror to Dublin. Thence he crossed over to France, leaving his brave Irish soldiers to fight his battles for another year.

Led by French officers, the Irish were again defeated at Aughrim by General Ginkell, after which, under General Patrick Sarsfield, they took refuge behind the old battered and ruined walls

of Limerick, which were so weak that the French general said they could be "battered down with roasted apples." Here for months the English strove in vain to capture the last stronghold of James in Ireland. At last General Ginkell agreed to allow Sarsfield to go out with all the honours of war, and to take his soldiers abroad wherever he wished. He also promised that the Irish should have the same freedom of religious worship they enjoyed in the time of Charles II. So Sarsfield took 14,000 men to France, and the Irish were left to become "hewers of wood and drawers of water" for their English masters. Parliament refused to be bound by Ginkell's promise to give the Irish religious freedom, and the Treaty of Limerick, in 1691, is looked upon by the people of Ireland as a glaring instance of English perfidy.

5. Some Important Laws.—While these wars were going on, important changes were taking place in England. In 1639, the Dissenters were permitted by the "Toleration Act" to worship in their own chapels; but they were not given the right to hold offices in the army and navy or to become members of Parliament. The Roman Catholics were left under cruel and unjust laws, which, however, were not fully enforced. A revenue of £1,200,000 a year was voted William and Mary, but instead of voting it for life, as in the days of Charles II. and James I., only a part was granted, the rest being kept under the control of parliament. It was in this reign that the money needed for the public service began to be voted annually, and this made it necessary that Parliament should meet every year.

Another very important Act in 1689 was the "Mutiny Bill," which gave the officers of the army and navy power to form courts for the trial and punishment of offenders against discipline. This power was given at first for six months and then for a year at a time. This law also makes it necessary that Parliament should meet every year, otherwise there would be no means of maintaining order in the army and of paying the soldiers.

6. War with France.—For the first eight years of William's reign war was going on against France. A Grand Alliance was formed in 1690, of England, Holland, Germany, Spain, and some smaller states, to keep Louis XIV. in check. For a time little was done by the Allies, and Louis had everything much his own way.

The day before the Battle of the Boyne, England was disgraced by her admiral, Lord Torrington, standing aloof while a French fleet defeated the Dutch off Beachy Head. The French then sailed along the coast of England, and, landing, burned the little village of Teignmouth. Although there were many people in England who were discontented with William's rule, nevertheless, the thought of Frenchmen landing on England's shores roused a fierce indignation against the Jacobites, and made William much stronger in England than he was before. He now crossed over to the Netherlands to take command of the allied army which was fighting there against Louis' forces. William was not very successful, and he lost many battles. His losses encouraged the numerous traitors at that time in England to carry on plots against him, and to treat with James for his return. Churchill was one of the basest of these traitors, and Lord Russell, the admiral of the fleet, was known at the court of James to be unfaithful. Yet, when Admiral Tourville tried to cross the channel with a French army, Russell rather than allow the French to triumph in English waters, met him at Cape La Hague, in 1692, and inflicted so heavy a loss on the French fleet that France made no further attempts to invade England.

7. The National Debt and Bank of England.—But all this fighting made heavy taxes for the English people, who had to bear the heaviest portion of the expenses of the Allies. To lighten their burdens, William's Treasurer, Charles Montague, introduced the plan of borrowing what was needed from rich people, who received in return each year from the government interest on what they lent. It was not easy to borrow much at first, for there were no banks which could receive the savings of many people, and then lend them to the government. But in 1694, Patterson, a Scotchman, suggested the founding of a bank, and his plan was carried out by Montague. In this way the Bank of England, perhaps the strongest bank in the world, had its beginning. Montague carried out another reform, very much needed at that time. The coin of the realm had become so worn and clipped by dishonest men, that a shilling was often worth no more than sixpence. The rich people did not feel this much for they took the coins at what they were really worth; but poor men had little choice, and their wages were often paid in this debased coin at its face value, while the coins they gave for what they bought were taken by dealers at sometimes less than

their true value. Montague determined to give the nation good coin, and, at a great loss to the Treasury, he called in all the worn and clipped coins and gave coins of full weight in exchange. He also had the coins made with "milled" or ribbed edges, so that it could be easily seen whether a coin had been cut or clipped.

8. Rise of Party Government.—When William came to the throne he wished to have both Tories and Whigs among his advisers. He could not understand why they could not work together for the public interest; but he soon found out that the feeling between the two parties was too bitter to permit common action. So much trouble arose through their quarrels, that at length he listened to the advice of Earl Sunderland to choose his advisers from the party having the greatest number of supporters in Parliament. In this way our system of Party Government began, although it must not be supposed that it was carried out very thoroughly in William's reign, or in that of his successor.

9. Useful Laws.—With the introduction of Party Government began the passage of many useful measures. A "Triennial Act," which decreed that a new Parliament must be elected at least every three years became law in 1694; and the law which made it necessary that all books, newspapers, and pamphlets, should be licensed by a committee of the King's Council, was allowed to drop. Henceforth any man could publish what he wished, without asking for permission. This led to better newspapers being published, although it was a long time before it was safe to publish anything against the government of the day. In 1695 the law of treason was made more just and merciful, and for the future a man charged with treason could have a lawyer to defend him, and a copy of the charges brought against him.

10. Peace of Ryswick.—While England was thus improving her laws, William had to endure many sorrows and disappointments. In 1694, Queen Mary died of small-pox, and William was almost heart-broken. Their early married life had been unhappy, through William's sullenness and bad temper; and he had treated her with coldness and neglect. She bore all his harshness and unfaithfulness with patience, and after a time her truth, constancy, and loving disposition so melted his coldness and drove away his suspicions, that he became one of the most loyal and devoted of

husbands. It is said he never recovered from the shock of her death. Then a plot was formed in 1696 to murder him ; but its discovery had the effect of making his subjects more loyal. The war against Louis had been generally unsuccessful, until 1695, when William won a great victory by taking the strong fortress of Namur.

At last Louis was tired of war, and he agreed to a peace in 1697. The Treaty of Ryswick was signed, and by it Louis gave up most of his conquests and consented to acknowledge William as king of England. The nation was glad to have the war ended, and Parliament began at once to reduce the number of men in the army and navy. It even went so far as to send William's Dutch Guards back to Holland, an act that William felt to be both ungrateful and insulting. Besides he thought a strong army was still needed, for he foresaw in the near future a new danger to the peace of Europe.

11. Spanish Succession.—This danger arose out of the sickly condition of Charles II. King of Spain, who was not expected to live many years. He had no children, and his great possessions in Spain, Italy, the Low Countries, and America, were coveted by his near relations. Louis XIV. had married Charles' eldest sister, but he had solemnly renounced all claim to the Spanish throne on behalf of himself and his children. The Elector of Bavaria had a good claim to the throne of Spain, so also had the German Emperor Leopold. William considered it dangerous for the Emperor or one of the French royal family to become king of Spain ; and so he entered into a treaty with Louis by which the greater portion of the Spanish possessions should go to the Elector of Bavaria. The Elector, however, died, and a second Partition Treaty was framed, which gave the Spanish crown and most of the Spanish territory to the Archduke Charles, the second son of the Emperor. In all these arrangements the Spanish people were not consulted ; and when the facts came to light, they were very angry, and Charles II., acting under the advice of his friends, made a will and left all his dominions to Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. The temptation to break the Partition Treaty was too strong for Louis, and he accepted the Spanish crown on behalf of his grandson, and put garrisons in the Spanish fortresses in the Low Countries. William was indignant, but for the time being he was powerless. His troops were few, and England refused to go to war ; and so, very unwillingly, he had to assent to Louis' breach of faith.

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12. The Act of Settlement.—The English were more concerned about who should reign after Anne, than who should be king of Spain. William had no children, and the last of Anne's nineteen children had just died. The fear was strong that James II.'s son would be chosen if the succession was not settled in time. So, in 1701, an "Act of Settlement" was passed, which arranged that the throne after Anne's death should go to the Princess Sophia of Hanover and her heirs. Sophia was the grand-daughter of James I., and daughter of Elizabeth, the wife of the unfortunate Elector Palatine. Her claim by birth was not very strong, but she was the nearest Protestant relation of the royal family.

The Act of Settlement also enacted, among other things, that in future judges should hold office for life or good conduct. Henceforth judges could not be dismissed at the king's whim or pleasure, as in the days of the Tudors and the Stuarts.

13. Death of William.—And now an event took place which made the English people as eager for war as a few months before they had been anxious for peace. James II. was visited on his death-bed by Louis XIV., and Louis promised to recognize his son James as the king of England. The English could not endure that the French king should choose a ruler for them, and at once they cried out for war. William now found no trouble in getting Parliament to vote all the men and money he wanted. But the war was not to be waged under William's command. His life was near its close, and an accident, by which he broke his collar bone, hastened his end. He knew no one fit to lead the armies of the Allies against Louis' generals save Churchill, the Earl of Marlborough; and Churchill had been banished from his court some time before for his base treachery to William. He was now recalled, and trusting to his ambition to keep him faithful, William named him Captain-General of the allied armies. Then, on the 20th February, 1702, passed away one of England's greatest kings and truest friends. He had his faults both as a man and as a ruler. He did not fully understand the English people and the English form of government, and he often acted without the consent of his Parliament in matters of grave importance. But his prudence, foresight, tolerance, and courage, saved England from the loss of her religious and political freedom at a time when England seemed powerless to save herself.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE LAST OF THE STUARTS.

1. Queen Anne.—William was succeeded by Anne, the second daughter of James II. The nation was glad to have once more an English sovereign, and "Good Queen Anne" was, throughout her reign, popular with all classes of her subjects. She was a dull but kind-hearted woman, who had won the pity and sympathy of her people by losing all her many children. Her inclinations and feelings were on the side of the Stuarts and against the line of Hanover, which was to come after her. It would have pleased her much if her brother James, the Pretender (as he was called), had consented to give up his Roman Catholic faith and become a supporter of the English Church. This James refused to do, and Anne felt compelled, through her love for the Church, to refuse her assent to his claim to the throne.

Anne was much under the influence of Sarah, the Duchess of Marlborough, a beautiful but violent-tempered woman, who had been Anne's friend from early years. They were on very familiar terms, and called each other "Mrs. Morley" and "Mrs. Freeman." This friendship had a great deal to do with the politics of the time, for in consequence of it Anne, though a Tory at heart, kept a Whig government in office for many years, because the Whigs supported the war in which the Duke of Marlborough was the chief commander. Marlborough himself, and Godolphin, the High Treasurer, were Tories, but they had to join the Whigs as the Tories were bitterly opposed to the war against France.

2. War of the Spanish Succession.—This war was to prevent Louis XIV. from placing his grandson on the throne of Spain. William had formed a Grand Alliance, the principal members of which were England, Holland, Portugal, Savoy, Prussia, Austria, and a small portion of Spain. Louis had Bavaria and nearly all Spain on his side. The chief leaders among the Allies were Marlborough, Prince Eugene of Savoy, and Heinsius of Holland, while the Earl of Peterborough during the early years of the war did good service for them in Spain. Louis, on the other hand, had

large armies and great generals, and his troops had been successful in many battles during the preceding half century.

Marlborough had many difficulties to overcome abroad and at home. The Allies were not always willing to do as he wished, and the Tories in England put obstacles in his way. Yet he never lost patience, and by his tact and winning manners gradually succeeded in getting the Allies to follow his advice and leadership. His ability as a commander was not fully known until this war began ; but he soon proved himself to be one of the greatest generals in all history. He was calm and heedless of danger on the battlefield, and his readiness of resource was equal to every occasion. He was great, also, as a statesman and diplomatist ; but he was faithless and cold-hearted, and his love for money amounted to avarice. The pleasantest feature of his character and career was his love for his wife.

Marlborough could not do much during the first two years of the war, on account of the timidity of the Allies, and the hindrances their quarrels placed in the way. Meanwhile the Tories in England were trying to prevent, by an "Occasional Conformity Bill," the Dissenters from holding any office. Some of the Dissenters, in order to get into parliament, would take the sacrament in the English church, and then attend worship in their own chapel. This the Tories sought to stop ; but the Bill they brought in was defeated by the Whigs in the House of Lords.

Not until 1704 was the war carried on with much vigor. A large French army was then sent by Louis to Bavaria to attack Austria. Marlborough saw the danger, and, by a stratagem, managed to get his Dutch allies away from their own frontier. He then marched straight to Bavaria, where he joined Prince Eugene near the little village of Blenheim. Then was fought one of the most important battles of modern times. With an army not so numerous as that opposed to him, Marlborough defeated, with terrible loss, on the 13th of August, 1704, a veteran French force commanded by one of France's best generals. Henceforth the French soldiers were no longer thought to be invincible. The same year the great rock fortress, Gibraltar, was taken by Admiral Rooke, and it has remained in England's possession ever since. Marlborough's great victory made the Whigs very popular in England, and Marlborough himself became the idol of the people.

In 1706, the Allies under Marlborough won another great victory

over the French at Ramillies in Flanders, and took nine strong fortresses along the Flemish frontiers. While these victories were being won in Flanders, Peterborough was carrying on a spirited campaign in Spain. By a clever stratagem he took Barcelona, and succeeded in proclaiming the Archduke Charles king at Madrid. All these losses made Louis anxious for peace, but the Allies were so elated with their successes that they would not listen to the fair terms he offered. Marlborough and the Whigs knew that their power depended on the continuance of the war.

3. State of the Nation.—It so happened that England was very prosperous at this time, and her people did not feel the heavy expense of the war. Money was borrowed freely to pay the Allies, and the debt of the nation grew to over £50,000,000. This debt was useful in keeping the Pretender off the throne, for those who had lent money to the government were afraid if he became king their money would not be repaid. The Bank of England was doing a good work in helping trade and commerce; large towns like Manchester and Leeds were springing up, and Liverpool was fast becoming a great city. But the growth of large towns was at the expense of the country districts. The yeomanry of England began to disappear, as the small farmers found it paid better to sell their farms to rich men and put their money into trade in the towns than to till the soil.

4. Union of England and Scotland.—Much more important than all Marlborough's victories was the Union of England and Scotland, which took place in 1707. The two nations had never been on very friendly terms, although, since the time of James I., they had been ruled by the same sovereign. The Act of Settlement had said that Anne was to be succeeded in England by the House of Hanover; but the Scotch Parliament had not agreed that it should reign in Scotland. The Scotch were angry with the English because they would not allow Scotland to trade freely with England, or in English foreign ports. So, when a Scotch colony on the Isthmus of Darien failed, the Scotch blamed the English laws, and the Scotch Parliament, in 1703, passed a Bill that when Anne died Scotland should not have the same sovereign as England. English statesmen foresaw this would lead to war, and they offered Scotland good terms if she would

agree to unite with England. The Scotch people did not like to give up their independence ; but their Parliament was bribed, it is said, to consent, and Scotland and England became one nation with a common flag and a common Parliament. The terms were that Scotland was to keep her own Established Church—the Presbyterian—and her own peculiar laws and courts. She was to send forty-five members to the House of Commons and sixteen elected peers to the House of Lords. Trade was to be free at home and abroad between the two peoples, and Scotland was to get a sum of money to make her coinage as good as that of England. The Union proved a great boon to both nations, although, for many years, the Scotch and English did not understand each other, and this led occasionally to bitter feelings.

5. Party Struggles.—While England and Scotland were settling their difficulties, the war against France was going on. In 1708, Marlborough defeated the French at Oudenarde and Lille ; but the Allies lost ground in Spain after Peterborough was recalled. France was now greatly exhausted, and Louis again offered fair terms of peace, which the Allies would not accept, because Louis would not agree to help to drive his grandson out of Spain. The war again went on, and France at a great sacrifice put another large army in the field. In 1709, the Allies under Marlborough once more met the French and defeated them, this time at Malplaquet, in the north of France. The loss was very heavy on both sides ; but the Allies suffered more than the French, and gained little by their victory.

The English had now become tired of the war, and they began to think that it was carried on to please Marlborough and the Whigs. What the people thought was shown very clearly when the Whig Government impeached Dr. Sacheverell for preaching a foolish sermon on “Divine Right” and the sin of resisting a rightful king. Had the Whigs been wise they would have paid no attention to Sacheverell ; but they thought his sermon was an open attack on the right of Parliament to choose the sovereign, and so had Sacheverell tried before the Lords, who ordered his sermon to be burnt, and condemned him to cease preaching for three years. This made him a popular hero, and great crowds after the trial cheered him, rang the bells, and lit bonfires, to show their approval of his conduct, and their dislike of the Whigs.

The queen, who was in sympathy with the Tories, had just quarrelled with the Duchess of Marlborough, and had taken a new favourite, a Mrs. Masham, the cousin of Harley, a leading Tory statesman. Through Mrs. Masham's influence, Anne now dismissed her Whig ministers and chose in their stead Tories, the chief of which were Harley and Bolingbroke, the latter a brilliant speaker and writer. A general election followed, which resulted in the Tory party gaining a large majority in the House of Commons. Marlborough was dismissed from his command of the army, and charged with taking wrongfully some of the public money given for the army. He was forced to leave England, and never again held any high position. So ended the career of England's greatest general—one who never lost a battle nor besieged a fortress he did not take.

6. Peace of Utrecht (1713).—The new Tory ministry was very anxious for peace, for it knew that the war could not succeed without Marlborough. So it offered, secretly, good terms to Louis, and peace was agreed upon without the knowledge of England's allies. It was a disgraceful act, although there was nothing to be gained by continuing the war. Louis gave up all his conquests in the Low Countries and Germany; Austria obtained Naples, Milan, and the Netherlands; while Philip of Anjou kept Spain and her possessions in America. England obtained Gibraltar, Minorca, Hudson's Bay and Straits, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia. Louis, further, promised to acknowledge Anne and her Hanoverian successors, and never again to help the Pretender. But after all this bloodshed to drive Philip from Spain, he was allowed to remain king.

7. Death of Anne (1714).—The Peace of Utrecht was scarcely concluded when Anne died. The Princess Sophia died a few months before her, and George, Sophia's son, was Anne's successor. George was not in England at the time of the queen's death: Anne's dislike of her successor being so great that she would not allow him to visit England. A short time before Anne died, Bolingbroke, Harley (now Earl of Oxford), Ormond, and other Jacobites began to intrigue to restore the Pretender. Bolingbroke thought he had everything in readiness to place the Pretender on the throne; but the sudden death of the queen, and the prompt action of the Whigs and the Duke of Shrewsbury ruined his plans, and George I. became king without any opposition.

8. **Literature of the Age of Anne.**—The latter part of the 17th century, and the beginning of the 18th, are rich in great poets and prose writers. We have already mentioned Milton and Bunyan; but, besides these, there were Addison, Steele, and Swift, satirists and essayists; Bishop Burnet, the historian of his own times; Locke and Hobbes, great writers on philosophy and politics; the poets Cowley, Dryden, Pope, and Butler; De Foe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe*; and Pepys, the author of a *Diary*, which tells us what was going on in London at the court and among the people. These writers, excepting Milton, were not so great as those of the age of Elizabeth; but they wrote in simpler language and in plainer sentences, because their writings were read by people many of whom were not scholars, whereas, in the time of Elizabeth, few read much except educated men and women.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE WHIG NOBLES RULE ENGLAND.

1. **George I.**—The first king of the line of Hanover, was past middle age when he came to the throne, and cared much more for Hanover and its people than for his English crown. As a man he had few good and no great qualities; but as a king he did fairly well, because he left the government of the country much in the hands of his ministers. He knew little or no English, and brought his companions and associates with him from Germany; some of them as gross and licentious as the favourites of Charles II.

Almost his first act was to dismiss the Tory ministers, and appoint Whigs in their stead. Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormond were impeached for treason, and for their share in the Treaty of Utrecht. Bolingbroke and Ormond fled to France; Oxford stood his ground, and after an imprisonment of two years was released.

2. **The Rebellion of 1715.**—The year after George's accession, the Jacobites in Scotland and in the north of England rose in rebellion. The Earl of Mar raised an army in the Highlands, but he was defeated by the Duke of Argyle at Sheriffmuir, on the same day that

the Jacobites in England were compelled to surrender at Preston in Lancashire. The Pretender landed after the rebellion was over and, finding his cause was lost, returned to France with the Earl of Mar. Several persons were put to death after this rising, among whom was the Earl of Derwentwater, a leader of the Jacobites in the north of England.

The rebellion led to an important change in the time a Parliament can last. The Whigs were afraid that if an election took place at this time they might be defeated, and they changed the law so that a Parliament could remain in existence *seven* years instead of *three*; and the Septennial Act, as the new measure was called, has remained law to the present. The worst feature of this change was that the Parliament which made it continued to sit for the new term, although it was elected for but three years.

In 1715 Louis XIV. died, and was succeeded by his great-grandson Louis XV. The new king was a mere lad, and the Duke of Orleans acted as Regent. Orleans was friendly to England, and when Spain tried, in 1718, to recover a portion of her lost territory in Italy, France and England united to force her to keep the peace.

3. South Sea Bubble.—The National Debt had now grown so large that Aislabie, the Treasurer, proposed to Parliament a scheme for its easy payment. This was to accept the offer of the South Sea Company, which promised, if given the sole right of trading with South America in slaves and other commodities, to pay off a large share of the public debt. When the proposal was made the Bank of England also made an offer, and then the two companies began to bid against each other, until, at last, the South Sea Company offered to give £7,500,000 to the Government, in addition to what it had first proposed. The offer was accepted in 1720, in spite of the warnings of Robert Walpole, a rough but shrewd Norfolk squire, who showed clearly that the Company could not carry out its agreement. No sooner was the scheme adopted than every person who had any money to invest rushed to buy the shares of the Company. In a short time shares rose from £100 to £1000; and then almost as quickly the public lost confidence in the Company, and the anxiety to sell caused the shares to fall in price until they were nearly worthless. Thousands of people of all classes were ruined, and public wrath was turned against the

King's ministers, some of whom were found to have taken bribes from the Company to further its scheme. They had to resign, and Walpole, who had spoken against the scheme, was now called upon to lessen the evil effects of the failure and panic.

4. Walpole.—Walpole became chief minister in 1721, and continued in office till 1742. He was the first to be called "Prime Minister," and held that post longer than any other man in English history. He was a rough, coarse man, who enjoyed foul talk, eating, drinking, and fox hunting. He lived a licentious life, such as was very common in the 18th century among men in high positions. He kept himself in office by buying the support of members of Parliament, and by paying great attention to trade and commerce, of which matters he knew more than most men of his time. He did good service to Britain by keeping the country at peace, and by the steady support he gave to the House of Hanover. In his day the nation made great progress in extending its trade, increasing its manufactures, and in employing better methods of tilling the soil. He was tolerant to the Dissenters, but was too much afraid of the Church party to repeal the Test and Corporation Acts, which prevented them from having their rights as citizens.

All through the reigns of George I. and George II. the Whigs were in office, and when one Government went out, it was replaced by another of the same political opinions. The Whig nobles were very powerful in the country where they owned large estates, and they banded themselves together to keep in power. They bought up the right to send members from boroughs where there were few voters, and by this means always had many supporters in Parliament. Then, again, the Tories were suspected of being Jacobites, and of wishing to bring back the Pretender, and so every man that had lent money to the Government supported the Whigs fearing, if the Tories got into office, he would never be repaid. By such means as these the Whig nobles managed to have things all their own way for nearly fifty years.

5. George II.—Beyond a slight plot, in 1722, by Bishop Atterbury, in the interest of the Pretender, and a brief excitement in Ireland over the coinage of some half-pence, nothing of interest took place in the last six years of George I.'s reign. George died, while abroad in Hanover, in 1727, and was succeeded by his son, George

II. The new king had been opposed to Walpole while his father, George I., was living, and Walpole expected to be turned out of office as soon as he came to the throne. Perhaps he would, had not Queen Caroline, a shrewd and wise woman, used her influence with her husband to keep him in his post. George II. was a thorough German, and knew very little more about the English language and the English people than his father. He was a stubborn man, and too fond of war, for he was a brave soldier and a good general. Fortunately his queen had great influence over him, and through her Walpole was able to get the king to do much as he wished.

6. Walpole's Policy.—The first ten years of George II.'s reign had few stirring events. The nation was kept at peace, and Walpole gave his attention to helping trade and commerce, and to lessening the public debt. He took the duties off a great many articles that came into the country as well as off many that were sent out of it. He allowed the colonies in America to trade with other countries, and by so doing Georgia and Carolina were able to sell their rice in foreign markets. He saw that he could prevent a great deal of smuggling by making goods pay duty when they were sold in the country instead of when they were brought into ports of entry. So in 1733, he brought in an Excise Bill, which aimed at collecting the duties on certain kinds of goods by making them pay a tax when they were sold, instead of when they were brought into the sea-ports. The first duty is called *excise*, and the second *customs*. But Walpole was too much ahead of his time. People were afraid of his scheme, and so great an outcry was raised against the Excise Bill that Walpole, rather than have any bloodshed, abandoned it.

Walpole had one weakness which helped to bring about his downfall. He wanted to have all the power of the government in his own hands, and was so jealous of other able men, that he forced them one by one to leave his ministry, until he had for associates none but inferior men who would do his bidding. In this way there grew up gradually a strong "Opposition" composed of men who had formerly supported him, the leaders of which were Pulteney, Carteret, Chesterfield, and, later on, William Pitt, the grandson of a former governor of Madras. The younger members of this party

grew tired of Walpole's method of ruling, and of his peace policy, and in their speeches talked a good deal about "Patriotism," or love of country. Hence they were, in derision, called the "Patriots," and Walpole sneered at them, and said that when they grew older they would become wiser.

7. The Family Compact.—In spite of all the "Patriots" could do, Walpole continued to hold his ground, until a war with Spain broke out in 1739. This was caused by France and Spain forming a secret "Family Compact" (they both had members of the Bourbon family on their thrones) against England. Spain was to get the aid of France in recovering Gibraltar from England, in return for her giving France the sole right to trade with her colonies in America. English merchants, after the Treaty of Utrecht, had been permitted to trade slightly in the South Seas, and finding the trade profitable, had managed to increase it a good deal by smuggling. When the smugglers were caught by the Spanish authorities, they were imprisoned and otherwise punished. Tales of Spanish cruelty were spread abroad throughout England, and Parliament and the people began to clamour for war. Walpole was very much against going to war, as he knew that England was not prepared, and besides, feared a Jacobite rising, aided by France and Spain. But the feeling of the nation for war was so strong, that Walpole unwillingly gave way, and declared war in 1739. When the bells began to ring at the news, Walpole said, "They may ring their bells now, but they will soon be wringing their hands."

8. Fall of Walpole.—It did not take long for Walpole's words to come true. The war was badly managed, and England had little success. Walpole was blamed for this, and perhaps he deserved the blame, as he was not fitted for the duties of a war minister. To make matters worse, crops failed, and bread became dear. People began to cry out against Walpole, and he was forced to resign, in 1742. He was made Earl of Orford, and given a pension. He never again held office, but for years had influence enough with the king to say who should be the king's ministers.

9. War of the Austrian Succession.—And now another war sprang up in which England, rather unwisely, took part. The German Emperor, Charles VI. (the Archduke Charles of the war of the Spanish Succession) had no son, and desiring to leave his

hereditary dominions in Austria and Hungary to his daughter Maria Theresa, persuaded the strong nations of Europe to sign an agreement, called the "Pragmatic Sanction," by which the crown of Austria and Hungary should go to his daughter. When he died in 1740, it was soon seen that there was a plot to rob Maria Theresa of her dominions. Frederick II. of Prussia seized Silesia, the Elector of Bavaria claimed the Imperial Crown, and was supported by France and Spain in his claim. England and Holland alone remained true to their promises, and George II. put himself at the head of an army and defeated the French at Dettingen on the Maine, in 1743. The French, to draw off the English troops, sent Charles Edward, son of James the Pretender, into Scotland, to claim the crown of Great Britain and Ireland. Fifteen thousand men were to assist him, but a storm wrecked the French fleet, and the French troops never landed. The French were, however, more fortunate at Fontenoy, in 1745, where under Marshal Saxe they defeated the English with heavy loss.

10. The Rebellion of 1745.—Charles Edward landed, July 1745, in the Highlands, and soon was at the head of a large number of clansmen, who were eager to fight against the Duke of Argyle, and the king he supported. A little later, "Prince Charlie" was in Edinburgh, where he proclaimed his father king. On September 21, his Highlanders met and defeated Sir John Cope at Prestonpans. Had he now marched into England he might have had a chance to recover the throne for the Stuarts, for just then there were few troops in England to oppose him. But he lingered at Edinburgh enjoying the smiles and favours of the ladies of the gay Scotch capital, for the Young Pretender was a handsome, daring young fellow, who won many hearts by his pleasant ways. At last he started south with 6,000 men, mostly Highlanders, expecting to get aid on his march from the Jacobites in England. The people turned out to look at his army as it passed by, but did not give him much help in either men or money. At Derby he was advised to return to Scotland, as the king's troops were on the march to meet him. At Falkirk, 1746, he defeated General Hawley, and then many of his men deserted him and returned home. With a brave remnant of his followers, he made a stand at Culloden, in Invernesshire, against a large and well-armed force under the Duke of Cumberland, but his men were cut to pieces, April, 1746. For

five months Charles Edward wandered through the **Highlands**, seeking a way of escape, and carefully concealed from his enemies by his few faithful friends, the most famous of whom was the heroine Flora Macdonald. Then, in September, he left Scotland's shores for ever, and went back to France.

The Jacobites made no further attempts to restore the Stuarts. The Duke of Cumberland earned the title of "Butcher" Cumberland, by his cruelty to the **Highlanders** after the Battle of Culloden, and three Scotch nobles were put to death for treason. Efforts were now made to prevent further risings in the **Highlands**, and laws were made forbidding the chiefs of clans from exercising their ancient rights over their clansmen. The **Highlanders** were not allowed to carry arms or wear their tartans, and roads were made through the **Highlands** so that troops could easily march from point to point. All these changes made the proud **Highlanders** very unhappy and restless, and it was not till 1758, when William Pitt allowed Highland regiments to be formed under the command of their own chiefs, with their own peculiar uniform and music, that peace was restored among these brave and high-spirited people.

11. Religious Revival.—Meanwhile, England had sunk into a condition in which it seemed as if all religion and morality were dead. The lower classes were ignorant and brutal, and no one seemed to care for their moral and spiritual welfare. The middle classes were given up to money-making, and had lost nearly all interest in religious matters. The upper classes were steeped in vice, profanity, and infidelity; while the clergy, as a rule, neglected their duties. The country vicars were the boon companions of the squires in their sports and revels. Bishops often paid more attention to winning the favour of the king's German mistresses, through whom they expected promotion, than to looking after their dioceses. In fact, all classes seemed stricken with moral deadness, and with a desire to enjoy merely earthly pleasures.

The "darkest hour before the dawn" had been reached in English social life, when three English Church clergymen, John Wesley, Charles Wesley, George Whitfield, and a few others, began a religious movement which has gone on, with almost undiminished vigor, to the present day. The movement began at Oxford among a few earnest students, and after a few years spread throughout the land. The Wesleys and Whitfield went through the length

and breadth of England, preaching in the open air to great throngs of colliers, and to the neglected poor among the people, and arousing earnest and deep resolves among them to lead better lives. For a time fierce persecution from those opposed to the movement was met with by the preachers ; but in the end the value of their great work was recognized, and all classes and Churches reaped the benefit of this remarkable revival. A new and powerful denomination, the "Methodists," arose out of John Wesley's preaching and wonderful power of organization, a denomination which now has its adherents all over the world. Among other important results of this revival was the new interest aroused in moral reforms, and the beginning of earnest efforts to lessen the misery and ignorance of the poor and the oppressed.

12. East India Company.—The war of the Austrian Succession came to an end by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, when Henry Pelham was Prime Minister. England gained nothing beyond an increase in her national debt, and Maria Theresa lost Silesia to Frederick II. of Prussia.

In 1751, Frederick, Prince of Wales, died, and this left his son, George, as the heir to the throne. In the same year, the *time* of the nation was put right, by taking eleven days out of the year, the 3rd of September being henceforth counted the 14th. This was owing to the year having been hitherto too long, and this made the clock of the nation too slow. After this the year was made shorter, and no change in the *time* has since taken place.

And now England was on the eve of wars which were to greatly increase her territory and her influence in Asia and America. In the year 1599 Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to a company to trade in the East Indies. This was the East India Company which gradually founded factories and small trading posts on the coasts of India. In this way Fort St. George, or Madras, was established. Bombay was acquired by the marriage of Charles II. to Katharine of Portugal, and Fort William (now Calcutta) was founded by another English trading company in the reign of William III. In 1702, the two companies united. They kept at each trading post a small body of native soldiers, or *sepoys*, and they paid rent to the neighbouring native prince or ruler for the land they occupied. These rulers of small districts owed allegiance to a higher ruler, who in turn was supposed to obey the Great Moghul of India.

The French also had a company in India which had built a fort at Pondicherry. The English and French traders were very jealous of each other, and sometimes their mutual dislike led to fighting, even when England and France were at peace. At last, Dupleix, the Governor of Pondicherry, formed a scheme of driving the English out of India, and of obtaining for France the control of Indian affairs. His plan was to take advantage of the frequent quarrels among the many native rulers of India, to play off one ruler against the other, and so, in the end, get the control of Southern India. To carry out his plans, it was necessary that the English should be driven out of the country, and this he proceeded to do by attacking and capturing Madras. For a time it seemed as if the English must submit, when the whole aspect of affairs was changed by the skill in war and vigor of a young man in the East India Company's service, Robert Clive. Clive had been sent to India as a clerk, his friends in England in this way hoping to rid themselves of a wild and troublesome youth. He now gave up his clerkship, and putting himself at the head of a few English and native troops defeated the French at Arcot, in 1751, and held the fort until assistance came. From that time onwards the French were driven back until Dupleix was recalled, and peace was made in 1754.

13. French and English in America.—A similar struggle for power and supremacy had been going on for many years in America between the English and French. Though there were intervals of peace between the French colonies in Canada and Acadia, and the English colonies to the south of them, yet an almost constant border warfare was carried on in which the North American Indians took an active part. The English and French colonists both wanted the sole right to trade in furs with the Indians, and often when England and France were at peace their colonies were keeping up a cruel warfare, and making attacks on each other's settlements. The French settlements were in what we now call Quebec and Nova Scotia, and in Louisiana, at the mouth of the Mississippi; while the English had thirteen colonies scattered along the eastern coast of North America. The French claimed the right to all the land west of the Alleghanies, and as that would have shut out the English fur-traders from a profitable trade with the numerous tribes of Indians in the north-

west, the French claim was disputed by the English colonists. The French established themselves at Fort Duquesne, in a fork of the Ohio river, and the English sent George Washington to build another fort near at hand. By mistake Washington fired into a party of French soldiers sent to warn him off French soil, and this led to a general war which did not end till the French were driven out of Canada. These events occurred in 1754, and the next year General Braddock, who was sent with a large force to take Fort Duquesne, through his own obstinacy and rashness, was surprised in a narrow pass in the woods, when near the fort, by a party of French and Indians, and most of his army destroyed. Braddock was killed, and for a time the French had matters all their own way.

14. Seven Years' War, 1756-63.—The year after Braddock's defeat, a great war broke out in Europe and lasted seven years. This war was caused by Maria Theresa's determination to recover Silesia from Frederick II. called the Great, of Prussia. In this she was aided by France, Russia and Saxony, while Frederick had no ally save England. When England entered into this war, she found herself without either army or general fit to take the field. The Duke of Newcastle, a weak, corrupt man, was now Prime Minister, and for a time nothing but disaster followed every effort of the English army and navy. France seized Minorca, and when Admiral Byng, who was sent to retake it with a weak fleet, retreated without striking a blow, the people were so angry that Newcastle, to save himself, had Byng tried by court-martial and shot. Soon after this terrible news came from India. Suraj-ud-Daula, the ruler of Bengal, marched on Calcutta, and taking the English inhabitants prisoners thrust them, 146 in number, into a small room not more than twenty feet square. There, in the "Black Hole of Calcutta," with but one small opening to admit air, they spent the hot sultry night, enduring the agonies of thirst and suffocation. When morning dawned, only twenty-three were found alive. In Europe, the Duke of Cumberland made an agreement with the French, allowing them to occupy Hanover, and disbanding his army. These were dark days for England. Despair settled on the nation, and men exclaimed, "We are no longer a nation."

15. William Pitt, the Great Commoner.—And now England

was to learn what a great man could do in rousing the nation by giving it his own courage and confidence; for it was now that William Pitt, the leader of the "Patriots," came forward to save his country. Pitt believed in himself, and his self-confidence was so great that he said he could save the country, and no one else could. He was a great parliamentary orator, and very outspoken and vehement in his attacks on wrong-doing in any form, caring little whom he pleased or offended. The Duke of Newcastle tried to rule without him by means of bribery and family influence; but the people asked for Pitt. Finally Pitt and Newcastle ruled together, Pitt as Secretary of State and War Minister, and Newcastle as Prime Minister. By this division of power the government had a strong support, for Pitt was popular with the people, and Newcastle kept Parliament faithful by bribery, which Pitt himself scorned to use. Pitt came into office in 1757, and in a short time a great change took place. The army was organized, the navy equipped, good officers were put at the head of English troops, and, best of all, hope and courage brought back to soldiers and citizens. The Duke of Cumberland was recalled, and Ferdinand of Brunswick put at the head of the army in Germany. Frederick the Great, now supported strongly by Pitt, defeated the French at Rossbach, in 1757, and won victory after victory in face of heavy odds.

16. Conquest of Canada.—If we now turn to America, we will find that there also Pitt's wise and vigorous policy was bearing good fruit. He roused the English colonists to fresh endeavours, and formed a plan for driving the French out of America. Men, (including Highland regiments), arms, and money, were freely sent to the aid of the colonists, and never was Pitt's knowledge of men better shown than in choosing the officers who were sent to command.

Abercromby was for a time Commander-in-Chief, but he was soon replaced by another man, General Amherst, who had under him, Wolfe, the hero of Quebec, Townshend, Murray, and others. The first great success was won at Louisbourg in Cape Breton, where Wolfe greatly distinguished himself in taking that strong fortress. Step by step the French were driven back, until they made their last stand at Quebec under General Montcalm, a brave and skilful officer. It fell to the lot of Wolfe to make the effort to capture this Gibraltar of America, in the summer of 1759. The

French had fortified Quebec and the steep banks of the St. Lawrence so well, that Wolfe, who was seriously ill, almost despaired of success. At last on the night of Sept. 12, Wolfe and his men climbed up a narrow path, on the face of the cliff above Quebec, unobserved save by a small French outpost. There on the Plains of Abraham the early dawn found him with his troops drawn up in order of battle. Montcalm, who was below Quebec when the news of Wolfe's landing reached him, in great haste marched to meet the enemy. Passing through Quebec, he at once attacked the English, who quietly waited until the French were close at hand, and then poured a deadly volley into their ranks. This was followed by a fierce charge of bayonets before which the French troops gave way. In the hour of victory Wolfe was mortally wounded, but he lived long enough to know that his task was successfully accomplished. The brave Montcalm also fell, and the following night died within the walls of Quebec. Five days after Quebec surrendered.

The war went on another year, and then Montreal surrendered, and with it, in 1760, passed all Canada into the hands of England.

17. Clive and India.—In these days news of victories won on land and sea came thick and fast to cheer the hearts of the English. At Minden, in Westphalia, Duke Ferdinand won a great victory over the French, while Admiral Hawke and Admiral Boscawen won victories at sea over the French fleet, the first at Quiberon Bay, and the second at Lagos.

But equally important with Quebec and Minden, was Clive's great victory at Plassy, in Bengal. Clive had just returned to Madras from England, when news came of the horrible tragedy at Calcutta. He at once proceeded to retake Calcutta, and meeting Suraj-ud-Daula on the Plains of Plassy, he, with 3,000 men, routed an army of 60,000 natives, with little loss to his troops. Suraj-ud-Daula was now dethroned, and a ruler more friendly to the English put in his place. This was the beginning of the English conquest of Bengal, and one step led to another, until the East India Company, in 1765, held the chief power in the most important provinces of Hindostan.

18. Close of Seven Years' War.—In 1760 George II. died, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III. The young king did

not like the Whigs and Pitt, and to get rid of them he used his influence to bring the war to a close. Pitt was opposed to peace, for he knew Spain had secretly promised to aid France; but George managed to get the Parliament on his side, and Pitt resigned. Newcastle, too, was driven from office by slights and insults, and Lord Bute, the king's favourite, took his place as Prime Minister. Nevertheless the war with Spain took place, as Pitt had foreseen, and lasted a year. England now refused to help Frederick the Great further, and brought peace to his enemies, by which he kept Silesia. A general peace was signed at Paris, in 1763, between France, England, Spain, Portugal, and the "Seven Years' War" came to an end. England kept Canada and Florida; Minorca was restored by the treaty, while, in India, English influence and power was henceforth fully recognized.

CHAPTER XXIII.

PERSONAL INFLUENCE OF THE KING.

1. George III.—George III. began his reign with the resolve to allow the king's ministers to rule no longer for the king, as was the custom in the days of George I. and II. His mother had early and constantly taught him to "Be a King;" and his tutor, Lord Bute, had strengthened the impressions his mother's teachings had made on his naturally narrow mind and stubborn disposition. Few English kings were so unfit to rule as George III., and few did so much injury to England at home and abroad. Yet he came to the throne with many things in his favour. He had been born and educated in England, and so was the first English king who reigned since the Revolution of 1688. It pleased the people to have once more an Englishman on the throne, and it pleased the Scotch when he said he was not merely an Englishman, but was also a "Briton." With these advantages on his side he was at first popular, and so he might have remained had he not used his position to recover the authority lost by his predecessors—George I. and George II. Instead of ruling by the advice of his ministers he sought to make them

the mere instruments of his will. In spite of his many faults as a ruler the people respected him for his pure domestic life, and for his frugal and simple habits. Old "Farmer George" was always, even in the days when his stubbornness and ignorant self-will were injuring the nation, a king that many people loved and revered.

2. Growth of Industry.—The latter part of the 18th century was a time when Great Britain made great strides in wealth and population. This was due, mainly, to the invention of many labor-saving machines, such as the "spinning-jenny" and "mule," for spinning yarn, by Hargreaves and Crompton, and the steam-engine by Watt. During this time it became known that pit-coal could be used to smelt iron ore, and this, taken with the discovery of the steam-engine, soon led to large iron-works being founded in the north of England. Goods could now be manufactured in great quantities; and the difficulty of taking them to market was overcome by improving the roads, and especially by building numerous canals. The first canal, from Worsley to Manchester, was proposed in 1758 by the Duke of Bridgewater, and was successfully completed by the great engineer Brindley. The population of the towns and cities now increased very rapidly, so that with more people to feed, and heavy duties on wheat and other articles of food, bread became much dearer. This led to more land being tilled, and much that had hitherto been considered waste and worthless was now enclosed and made to give good crops. Between 1760 and 1774 numerous Enclosure Bills were passed by the British Parliament in favour of the large landowners, who had a great deal of power in Parliament. The fencing in of so much waste land was very hard on poor people, many of whom had been wont to use these *commons* for pasturing a horse or cow. Pauperism was fast becoming a great evil, and a burden on the working portion of the community.

3. Wilkes.—George III., as has been stated, was anxious to rule himself, through his ministers, and that was why he got rid of Pitt and Newcastle at the beginning of his reign, and made Lord Bute Prime Minister. It was the king's policy to break down the power of the Whig nobles, for he knew that he could not have his own way so long as the great Whig families were kept in office. His plan was to form a party of his own, the "King's friends," neither

Whig nor Tory, which would look to the king for guidance and support. In this he succeeded very well, for the Tories, who had long been out of office, and the Jacobites, who had given up all hope of restoring the Stuarts, were glad to be taken into the young king's favour. Besides the Tories and Jacobites, he managed by means of bribes in the shape of money, titles, and offices, to win over many of the supporters of the Whigs. Nevertheless, it is doubtful if he could have carried out his policy, had not the Whigs been split into factions which made war upon each other. Their quarrels gave the king the chance he desired, and he soon became so powerful that he made and unmade governments at his pleasure.

Lord Bute, who succeeded Pitt and Newcastle, did not hold his position very long. He was a Scotchman, and a great favourite of the king's mother, and these things made him hated by the people. Besides he had no experience in politics, and the people knew he was a mere puppet in the king's hands. He became so thoroughly hated, that he had to keep a bodyguard of prize fighters about him when he walked through the streets of London. Frightened at last by the evidences on every side of popular hatred, he resigned, and George III. had again to take a Whig for his minister. This was George Grenville, a conscientious, hardworking man, who made himself disliked by both king and people by his narrowness and obstinacy. His first trouble was with a newspaper, the "North Briton," which very violently attacked the king and his ministers. The editor of this paper was John Wilkes, a member of Parliament. He was a clever, witty, but profligate man, who by a strange fate had a great deal to do in bringing in some much-needed reforms. Grenville, acting under instructions from the king, issued a "general warrant," that is a warrant in which the name of no person was given, for the arrest of the publishers and editors of the offending paper. Wilkes, along with several others, was arrested and put in prison; but by appealing to the courts, he got his release, and then proceeded against the Government for arresting a member of Parliament contrary to law. The courts decided in his favour, gave him damages, and condemned "general warrants" as illegal. Parliament now charged him with libel, and Wilkes seeing that he had little chance of fair play fled to France, and was outlawed for not

standing his trial. Nevertheless, no more "general warrants" have been issued since his time.

4. **Stamp Act, 1765.**—And now Grenville's meddlesome disposition led to a more serious difficulty than that with Wilkes. The English colonies in America had long felt that the Mother Country, by her trade policy, was injuring them for her own benefit. The colonies were not allowed to trade freely with other countries, but were expected to buy the manufactures they needed from England, and in return were given special privileges in the sale of their raw produce in England. The colonists had found it profitable to evade this law, and to carry on a trade with the Spanish colonies in America. This Grenville now tried to stop, and at the same time put a tax on the colonies to lessen the burden of the British taxpayers. The British Parliament said that much of the expense of the war in America was for the benefit of the colonies and, therefore, they should help to bear the burden. The tax was to be levied by making the colonists use *stamped* paper for notes, leases, and other legal documents. These stamps had to be bought from the British Government, which got a profit from their sale, although the money thus raised was spent in the colonies. The colonies were angry at this attempt to tax them without their own consent, and said that while they were willing to tax themselves for the good of the Mother Country, they were not willing that a Parliament in which they had no representatives should force them to pay taxes. They sent a petition against the "Stamp Act," but at first their remonstrance met with no attention. They then refused to buy any English manufactures, and this caused the English merchants and manufacturers to ask for the repeal of the Act. Meanwhile Grenville had displeased George III., and had been forced to give way to Lord Rockingham, the leader of the other section of the Whigs. Rockingham, aided by Pitt, did away with the Stamp Act, but Parliament, while removing it, took the opportunity of asserting its right to tax the colonies at pleasure.

A short time after this there was another change in the Government, and Pitt, with the title of "Earl of Chatham," came back as chief member of the Grafton Ministry. But ill-health forced him to leave the management of colonial affairs in other hands, and

Parliament, in 1767, placed duties on tea, painters' colours, glass, and a few other articles going into America. This aroused the colonies once more, who were now more than ever determined that they would not submit to arbitrary taxation, and began to take steps to defend their rights.

5. The Middlesex Elections.—The same obstinacy and love of power which caused George III. to drive his American subjects to revolt, led him to use his influence with the House of Commons to invade the rights of the electors of Middlesex. In 1769, Wilkes returned from France and was elected member for Middlesex, a county in which there were more electors than in most constituencies. George was angry, and through his Government had Wilkes arrested for his old offence, libel, and put in prison. The House of Commons was induced to expel him on account of the libel; but Wilkes was again elected by the people of Middlesex. Three times was Wilkes elected and expelled, and then the House of Commons declared Wilkes incapable of being elected, and persuaded Colonel Luttrell to oppose him in Middlesex. Wilkes received 1,143 votes and Luttrell only 296, nevertheless the Commons declared Luttrell elected. This high-handed and unjust act, by which the people were deprived of their right of election, caused great indignation, and when Wilkes came out of prison, the people of London showed their sympathy by electing him an alderman of the city.

6. Liberty of the Press.—The following year, 1771, Wilkes was engaged in another contest with Parliament, in the interest of the people. Although the press had now a right to publish without asking permission from any one, nevertheless it was against the rules to report the debates in Parliament. In spite of a "standing order" to the contrary, garbled reports were published, and at last, the Speaker of the Commons, ordered the arrest of a number of printers. Two of them appealed to the law, and Wilkes and another London alderman acting as magistrates, freed them as being guilty of no offence. The Speaker's messenger was arrested for trying to carry out the will of the Commons, and so serious was the quarrel that the Mayor of London was sent to the Tower while the session lasted. Meanwhile the printers were left at liberty, and though no decision was reached as to the right to publish debates, the press has ever since been permitted to report Parliamentary proceedings. This led

to better newspapers being published, and more interest in public affairs being taken, and it helped to put a stop to the practice of bribing members of Parliament. Wilkes was allowed to take his seat in 1774, and in 1782 the House of Commons admitted that it was wrong in seating Colonel Luttrell in 1769.

7. The American Colonies Win Their Independence.—In 1770, George III. succeeded in getting a Prime Minister to his



taste. This was Lord North, an easy-going, good-natured Tory, who was quite content to take his orders from the king. Now that George was "king" as he wished to be, he resolved to make his American subjects feel his authority. In 1770, Lord North took off all the obnoxious taxes, except that on tea, and this George III.

retained, for the purpose of asserting his right of taxation over the colonies. Meanwhile, the feeling in America was growing stronger every year, and the colonists resolved not to buy any tea until the tax was removed. This resolve was carried out, and the East India Company began to suffer. In 1773 some ship-loads of tea entered Boston harbour, and an effort was made to land the cargo. A number of colonists resolved to prevent this, and dressed as Indians went on board the ships and threw the chests of tea into the water. For this act of violence Parliament closed the port of Boston, took away from Massachusetts its charter, and demanded that the offenders should be sent to England for trial.

War was now near at hand. In 1774, all the colonies, except Georgia, sent delegates to Philadelphia, where a congress was held to decide on what action should be taken for the protection of their rights and liberties. They resolved to trade no more with England until the charter of Massachusetts was restored, and they made preparations for resistance, if such should be needful. In 1775, at Lexington, near Boston, the first encounter took place between the British troops and the farmers and mechanics of Massachusetts. The following month, a more serious encounter took place at Bunker's Hill, also near Boston, and there the American militia showed George III. that the Yankees could fight. In the meantime George Washington, of Virginia, had been chosen commander-in-chief of the American forces, and at once began to make such preparations as he could to meet the coming storm. No better choice could have been made. Calm, patient, devoted to his country, for eight years he bore the heavy burden of what at times seemed an almost hopeless struggle, and finally secured the independence of the colonies, an independence largely due to his unflinching courage and endurance, and to his power to cheer and animate his followers.

Early in the war the British troops were forced to leave Boston and retire to New York, where the feeling in favour of the Mother Country was strong. Canada was invaded in 1775 by American armies, under General's Montgomery and Arnold, in the hope of inducing the people to rebel. Montreal was easily taken, but Quebec resisted all attacks, and Montgomery was killed in an assault upon its defences. The Americans shortly afterwards retreated, and Canada was troubled no more. The colonists now finally decided to separate from the Mother Country, and Thomas Jefferson, on behalf

of Congress, drew up a solemn "Declaration of Independence," which was approved and accepted July 4th, 1776. Hitherto, the war had gone against the colonists, and a large British army under General Burgoyne, in 1777, marched from Canada down to the Hudson River, to cut off New England from the rest of the colonies. Great alarm was felt at this movement, and the American militia flocked in from all quarters to check Burgoyne's march. Soon Burgoyne found himself hemmed in, and to save his army from utter destruction, surrendered with six thousand men. This was the turning-point in the fortunes of the colonies. The next year, 1778, France came to the aid of the young Republic, and sent men, money, and a fleet, all of which were sorely needed. The war went on for several years after this with varying results. Washington had been defeated at Brandywine River, 1777, and forced to give up Philadelphia to the British, and British generals won many victories in the Southern States. Nothing but the heroic courage and patience of Washington saved the colonies at this time from yielding in despair. The war was carried on with extreme bitterness, arising from the employment by England of hired German soldiers and North American Indians. In 1781, the fortunes of war changed in favour of the Americans, until the crowning victory was won at Yorktown, where Lord Cornwallis, cut off from supplies by an American army and a French fleet, surrendered with several thousand men. After this the British people saw that all hope of keeping the colonies was gone. Britain was now at war with Spain which, in 1779, joined France against her, and made a desperate effort to retake Gibraltar. The fortress was defended for three years by General Eliot, who drove the besiegers back by pouring red-hot shot into their fleet. Russia, Sweden, and Denmark were also hostile, having banded themselves together against Britain, to prevent her from searching their ships. So, when the news of the surrender of Cornwallis came to England, people began to despair. Lord North, now thoroughly unpopular, resigned in 1782, and was succeeded by Rockingham. Pitt had died in 1778, his last speech being a plea against giving up the colonies, and a defiance to his old enemy, France. Nothing now remained but to make the best terms possible with France, Spain, and the colonies. Fortunately, a great victory won by Admiral Rodney over the French fleet enabled Britain to conclude an honorable peace. By the Treaty of Ver-

sailles, in 1783, the independence of the United States was recognized, France gained nothing, while Spain had to be content with Minorca and Florida. To Britain there remained in America, Canada, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.

8. Home Rule in Ireland.—While England had her troubles abroad, she was not without them at home. In 1780, a great riot took place in London, because Parliament removed some of the harsh laws against Roman Catholics. Lord George Gordon was the leader of a mob of 60,000 men, who came to Parliament with a petition against the measure. Not content with presenting their petition, the excited people broke out into acts of violence, burning Roman Catholic chapels, and destroying public and private property. Finally 10,000 troops had to be called out to restore order in the city.

A much more serious trouble was the demand made by the Protestants in Ireland for the right to manage their own affairs by an Irish Parliament. While the war with the colonies was going on, all the troops in Ireland were taken to America, and as France threatened an invasion, a large Protestant volunteer force, 100,000 in number, was raised to defend the country. This was Ireland's opportunity, and the Protestant leaders in the Irish Parliament, of whom the chief was Henry Grattan, demanded that Ireland should have the right to control her own trade and commerce, and that Poyning's law, which gave the English Parliament the right to prevent Bills passed in the Irish Parliament from becoming law, should be repealed. Lord Rockingham had no choice but to submit, and so, in 1782, Ireland got "Home Rule." Nevertheless, only a very small portion of the people of Ireland governed her, as Roman Catholics and Dissenters could not be members of Parliament, and this gave all the power into the hands of a few Protestant families belonging to the English Church in Ireland.

9. Warren Hastings.—Though England had lost ground in America, she was extending her possessions in Asia and Australia. In the latter country a convict settlement was formed in 1788 at Sydney, in New South Wales. For many years none but convicts were sent out, but, as we shall find, these were the pioneers of what promises to be a great Anglo-Saxon nation. In India, Clive did much to bring about a better treatment of the natives, who were

oppressed and robbed by English traders after the East India Company had gained so much control in the land. Clive returned to England and through his influence Warren Hastings, the Governor of Bengal, was made, in 1773, Governor-General of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras. When Hastings went to India he made great changes in the administration of affairs, in spite of a very bitter opposition from some members of his own Council. He had to wage a war against the Mahrattas, the roving freebooters of Central India, and against Hyder Ali, a military adventurer who had desolated the Carnatic with fire and sword. In spite of all the difficulties which his Council, the native princes, and the French put in his way, Hastings held for England all she had won, and laid the foundations of her present great Indian Empire. He returned to England in 1784, expecting to be rewarded for his services, but instead was impeached before the House of Lords by the Commons, for his cruel and unjust treatment of the natives. He was charged with selling the services of his English troops to a native prince, who used them to conquer and enslave the Rohillas, an Afghan tribe. He was also accused of extorting money from native rulers, and for putting a native to death illegally. Hastings did not think he had done anything wrong, for he knew that the offences he was charged with had been committed in the interest of the East India Company. His trial lasted eight years, and ended in his acquittal in 1795, although the three greatest orators of his time, Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, were employed to press the charges against him. Although acquitted, the trial had the result of making the English in India more just and merciful to the natives, and led to the better government of the country.

10. The Coalition Government and Its Overthrow.—When Lord Rockingham died, Lord Shelburne became Prime Minister. Among the followers of Rockingham was Charles James Fox, an able orator and statesman, who for years had spoken strongly against Lord North's government. Fox was a very amiable, liberal-minded man; but he was very much given to gambling and other vices. King George hated him, because he was the boon companion of George, Prince of Wales, and the king blamed him for corrupting his son and heir. Fox quarrelled with Shelburne, and to drive him from office united with Lord North in what was called a Coalition,

that is a union of people holding different opinions. The followers of Fox and North together were now more numerous than those of Shelburne, and they succeeded in turning him out of office. What is known in history as the "Coalition" government of Fox and North was now formed. It had a large following in Parliament, but people outside thought it was wrong that Tories and Whigs, who had been abusing each other so bitterly for so many years, should go into the same government. The king, too, was displeased, partly because he hated Fox, and partly because the ministry was too well supported. At first he could do nothing; but when Fox brought in a Bill for the better government of India, the king induced his friends in the Lords to throw it out, and then made this an excuse for forcing his ministers to resign. He now called on William Pitt, a young man of twenty four years of age, to become Prime Minister. Pitt was the second son of William Pitt, the great Commoner, and although young in years was old in knowledge, ability, and self-confidence. In vain, Fox and North outvoted him in Parliament, and tried to force him to resign. The king gave him his influence and support, and when, a few months later, the king dissolved Parliament, and called upon the people to elect their representatives, it was found that the nation was so strongly with Pitt that few of the followers of Fox and North were able to keep their seats. Pitt was now Prime Minister with a large following in Parliament and in the country, and the king was content to let him rule. For seventeen years without a break, from December 1783 to February 1801, he remained in power, guiding and controlling the affairs of the nation as no man had done since the days of Walpole.

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE STRUGGLE AGAINST NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

1. **William Pitt the Younger.**—One of Pitt's first acts was to pass an India Bill, in 1784, which gave the Government control over the political acts of the East India Company. This was done

by appointing a Board of Control, the president of which was to be a member of the Government. But Pitt had a great many other reforms in view. He saw that Parliament did not represent the people, and he tried to do away with some of the small and rotten boroughs, and give more members to large cities and towns, and to populous counties. In this he failed, as too many powerful persons wished to keep things as they were. He also sought to make trade freer between England and other countries. Pitt had studied and accepted the views of a famous book called the "Wealth of Nations," published in 1776, the author of which was Adam Smith, a Professor in a Scotch University. Pitt partly carried out Smith's doctrines by lowering the export and import duties on many articles. In this way he checked smuggling, and the public revenue was increased. He saw that Ireland was suffering from poverty, because she had no markets for her products, and he offered to admit Irish goods into English markets if the Irish Parliament would allow England to send her goods into Ireland. This the Irish Parliament refused to do because England did not propose to give to Ireland the right to trade in all her ports at home and abroad. Pitt was much disappointed at the refusal of his offer, but he succeeded in making trade freer with France. Pitt also put a stop to the practice of borrowing money from political friends at high rates of interest, and of giving them the privilege of doing work for the Government at their own prices. So, in many ways, he saved the public money, and began to lessen the public debt.

2. French Revolution.—Under such a wise and careful minister, who kept the country at peace and encouraged trade and commerce, the people were very prosperous, and the population and wealth of the nation grew rapidly. But in 1788 it looked as if Pitt's power would soon be at an end. George III. had an attack of insanity which lasted so long that Parliament began to take steps to have his son George, the Prince of Wales, appointed Regent. The Prince of Wales was a great friend of Fox, and Pitt and Fox both expected that when the Prince became Regent, Pitt would go out of office, and Fox would come in. So when a Regency Bill was brought in which proposed to state what the power of the Regent should be, Fox wanted the Prince to become Regent at once with all the power of the king, but this Pitt would not allow. While the two parties were disputing the old king recovered, and then the Bill was

no longer needed. The next year saw the beginning of the French Revolution, and from this time onward Pitt's plans for lessening the debt and carrying out great reforms at home had to be dropped. The causes of this Revolution may be traced a long way back. For many years the French people had been very badly governed, the poor and the working classes having to pay all the taxes, while the nobles and clergy did nothing but spend the earnings of the peasants, labourers, and artisans. But the time came when the heavy expenses of the French court could not be paid out of the taxes of the poor, and then the French king, Louis XVI., called together the French Parliament, or "States-General," to get money from the nobles and clergy. There were three branches of this States-General; for the nobles, the clergy, and the commons, sat and voted in separate chambers. When the Parliament met the commons would do no business until the nobles and clergy consented to meet and vote in the same assembly with them. The new assembly thus formed became known as the "National Assembly." The National Assembly soon began to make many changes giving the people more freedom, and taking away much of the power of the king, nobles, and clergy. In July, 1789, the Paris mob attacked and took the Bastille, a great stone fortress and prison on the Seine, where many innocent people had met a mysterious fate. A little later the king was forced by the mob to leave his palace at Versailles and take up his abode in Paris, where he was kept a kind of prisoner. Once he tried to escape, but his flight was discovered and he was brought back. Then Austria and Prussia made war upon France to put Louis in his old position, and this so enraged the Paris mob that it broke into the prisons and murdered a great number of royalist prisoners. This was in September, 1792. A few months afterwards, Louis and his queen, Marie Antoinette, were put to death for plotting the invasion of France by Austria and Prussia. While these events were taking place in France the English people looked on quietly. Pitt, at first, was pleased with the Revolution, as he thought the French were trying to get the same kind of government as existed in England. Fox was delighted; but Edmund Burke spoke and wrote against the revolutionists with all his great genius and eloquence. Burke's speeches had little effect for a time, but when the French went from one excess to another, then Burke's writings began to be widely read, and people grew

alarmed lest a revolution should break out in England. War with France now became popular. Austria and Prussia had not been successful in their invasion of France, for after the first fear had passed away the French Republicans drove their enemies back, and in their turn invaded the Austrian dominions in the Netherlands. The French now wanted all other nations to become republics, and when they began to take steps to invade Holland, which was under the protection of England, peace could no longer be maintained, and in Feb. 1793, France declared war against England, Holland, and Spain.

3. War with France.—In the war that followed England had, at first, as allies, Spain, Holland, Austria, and Prussia. England had to provide much of the money for the war, which owing to bad generalship and lack of energy was full of disasters for the Allies. The French drove the English out of Toulon, captured Amsterdam, and seized the Dutch fleet. Prussia soon made peace, while Spain cast in her lot with France against England. Against these reverses, we must place a victory by Lord Howe over the French fleet at Brest, and the seizure of the Dutch colonies at the Cape of Good Hope, in Ceylon, and in Malacca. So unsuccessful was the war, and so heavy the burden placed upon the English taxpayer, that Pitt was anxious to bring about an honorable peace. But the French were so elated with their victories, that no reasonable terms could be made, and in spite of bad harvests and great distress among the poor and the working classes, the war had to go on. To make matters worse, a foolish terror had seized upon the ruling and middle classes, who imagined they saw plots and conspiracies in every meeting held, and society formed, to obtain better government and a better representation in Parliament. Cruel and unjust laws were passed to prevent public gatherings and political meetings. The *Habeas Corpus* Act was suspended, and innocent men on the most trivial evidence were imprisoned and banished.

4. Trouble in Ireland.—In the meantime affairs in Ireland were growing worse and worse. The Irish Parliament did not represent the Irish people, and all offices and places of trust were given to the friends of a few ruling families. Shut in to Ireland by heavy duties against their products in English markets, the Irish were growing restless under the combined forces of grinding poverty and

political injustice. Pitt had tried to remedy some of their wrongs, but between the Irish Parliament and George III. he had failed. In 1790, Orange lodges (so called from William, Prince of Orange), were formed in the North of Ireland, and in 1791, a body of Roman Catholics and Protestants, known as the "United Irishmen," began to agitate for their civil and religious rights. Some of the leaders of this body, Wolf Tone, Hamilton Rowan, and others, asked the French for help, and the request was answered by sending a body of French troops under General Hoche, who attempted to land, but failed owing to a great storm at sea. At last the Irish rose in open rebellion, and formed a camp at Vinegar Hill, in Wexford, where they were attacked and defeated by General Lake, in June, 1798. A French force, under General Humbert, landed after the battle, and had a brief success, but was soon hemmed in and defeated. This rising was attended by horrible acts of cruelty, committed by both the Orangemen and the rebels, and by the different secret societies that sprang up over the land.

5. Naval Victories.—While Ireland was in this troubled condition, France, under its republican rulers, the "Directory," was extending her conquests in Italy and elsewhere. Her great success was largely due to the wonderful genius for war of a young and rising general, Napoleon Bonaparte, a native of Corsica. He had helped to drive the English out of France, had saved the French Directory from the Paris mob, and had been given command of an army which won victory after victory over the Austrians in Italy, and forced them to yield up their Italian possessions. France now planned to invade England, with the aid of the fleets of Holland and Spain, but Admiral Jervis defeated the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, in 1797, and drove it into Cadiz Harbor. Nelson, who was to win such great renown on the sea, was in this battle, and displayed great daring and skill. It was fortunate for England that this victory was won, for now the sailors, goaded to desperation by bad pay, bad food, and cruel treatment, mutinied, first at Spithead and then at the Nore. Their grievances were partially righted, a few of the ringleaders were punished, and then the men returned to their duty. They soon afterwards proved their loyalty and courage by defeating, under Admiral Duncan, the Dutch fleet at Camperdown, October, 1797.

But the British navy was now to win a still more famous victory,

under her greatest naval commander. Bonaparte, having humbled the Austrians, got permission to take a fleet and an army to Egypt. Admiral Horatio Nelson was sent with an English fleet to overtake him, but failed for some time to find his whereabouts. At length he got the necessary information, and sailed at once for Egypt, where he found Napoleon had landed, and had won a great victory over the Mamelukes, at the Battle of the Pyramids. But Napoleon's fleet lay anchored in the Bay of Aboukir, and, though it was six o'clock in the evening, Nelson sent some of his ships between the French fleet and the shore, and began a battle which raged nearly all night. The morning found most of the French fleet destroyed, and Napoleon's army without the means of return. The Battle of the Nile, which was fought August 1, 1798, brought great joy and relief to England, for France was now without a fleet. From Egypt, Bonaparte crossed over to Syria, besieged and took Jaffa, but was repulsed at Acre by the Turks and the English, and then returned to Egypt. Hearing that his interests could be best served by his return, he escaped in a vessel back to France, leaving his army behind him. He was now made First Consul, and once more led a French army against the Austrians in Italy, defeating them at Marengo in 1801. The same year his army in Egypt was defeated by Sir Ralph Abercromby, and his soldiers made prisoners.

6. Union of Great Britain and Ireland.—After the rebellion of 1798 in Ireland, Pitt saw that the only way to save the island from anarchy was to bring about a Union between Great Britain and Ireland. This he succeeded in carrying out in 1800, by bribing the Irish members of Parliament, and by promising the Irish Catholics to repeal the laws which deprived them of their rights as citizens. So, on January 1st, 1801, the Irish Parliament ceased to exist, and Ireland became represented in the United Parliament at London, by one hundred members of the House of Commons, and by twenty-eight peers. But Pitt's promise of civil and religious freedom for the Roman Catholics could not be carried out. When George III. heard that Pitt was preparing a Bill to give Roman Catholics their rights, he declared he would resign his crown rather than assent to it, and, Pitt who had pledged himself to this act of justice, felt it his duty to resign in 1801.

7. Peace of Amiens.—Aldington, the Speaker of the Commons, now became Prime Minister, and was supported by Pitt. In April of the same year, the English attacked the Danish fleet at Copenhagen, the Danes having shown signs of hostility. Sir Hyde Parker was the English Admiral, but Nelson did the fighting and won a hard-fought battle. Once during the struggle Parker signalled Nelson to retire, but Nelson put his telescope to his blind eye, and said he could see no signal, and went on fighting. Bonaparte, to serve his own ends, was now ready to make a truce, and so in March, 1802, the Peace of Amiens was signed. England gave up most of her conquests, and France restored the south of Italy to Austria.

8. Trafalgar.—The Peace of Amiens was but a hollow peace and Napoleon soon found a pretext for renewing the war. In defiance of the treaty he seized Parma and Piedmont, and placed an army in Switzerland. He found fault with England for not restoring the island of Malta to the Knights of St. John, and for harbouring French refugees. In 1804, his ambition was gratified by being made Emperor of France, and he was now eager to extend his empire, and dictate to Europe. To do this he saw he must first crush England, and to this end he began to gather a large army at Boulogne which was to be carried across the Channel in flat-bottomed boats. When news of Napoleon's designs reached England, nearly 100,000 volunteers offered their services to defend their country, and formed themselves into companies and regiments for purposes of drill and discipline. But Pitt who had been called back to his old post, in 1804, depended on England's navy, and it did not fail her in this hour of danger. Napoleon hoped to draw the English fleet away from the Channel, by sending it in pursuit of the French and Spanish fleets which sailed, apparently, for the West Indies. The plan partially succeeded, for Nelson went in pursuit of them, but after a while found that they had turned back, for the purpose of escorting Napoleon's army across the Channel. The Spanish fleet was, however, met by an English fleet at Cape Finisterre and driven into Cadiz, and Nelson having found out his mistake, returned in great haste, and coming up with the French fleet at Cape Trafalgar, October 21st, 1805, fought and won the greatest naval battle of the war. When the action was about to begin, Nelson gave the signal, "This day England expects every man to do his duty," and nothing

more was needed. Nelson, against the advice of his friends, exposed himself fearlessly to the French marksmen, one of whom shot him down while standing on the deck of his own ship, the *Victory*. He lived long enough to know that the battle was won, and that all danger of a French invasion of England's shores was at an end. The English people rejoiced at Nelson's last and greatest victory, although the price at which it was bought brought sorrow and mourning into every household.

Soon after this, Napoleon, who had turned away from England to attack Austria, met and defeated the armies of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz, December 2, 1805, and the news of this disaster "killed Pitt." At the early age of forty-seven, in January 1806, this worthy son of a noble sire passed away, full of sorrow and anxiety for the country he had served so well.

9. Abolition of the Slave Trade.—It had been Pitt's wish, when he returned to office in 1804, to have the aid of Fox in his Government, but George III. would not hear of it. Now, after Pitt's death, Fox was taken in, for all parties were united in fighting England's battles against Napoleon. It was hoped that Fox would, on account of his known friendliness to France, be able to bring about a peace, but this was not realized, and Fox soon followed his great rival to the grave, dying in 1806. It was at this time, 1807, that England took her first step in ridding herself of the curse of slavery. Ever since the revival under the Wesleys and Whitfield, a deep interest had been taken in the poor, the ignorant, and the oppressed. In 1773, John Howard was drawn into the work of visiting English jails and prisons, and his reports of their wretched and filthy condition, and of the vice and misery that prevailed in them, led Parliament to take steps to reform some of the more glaring abuses. In 1788, Clarkson, Wilberforce, and Zachary Macaulay, began a crusade against the slave trade between Africa and America, and against slavery itself. Pitt and Fox sympathized with the movement and lent it their aid, but the strong opposition of the merchants of Liverpool and others who made gain by the wrongs and sufferings of the poor negroes, prevented Parliament from doing justice until 1807, when the *slave-trade* was made *piracy*, and abolished.

10. The Berlin Decree.—The Battle of Trafalgar had taught

Napoleon that England could defend her own shores against all attempts at invasion. He next sought to ruin England through her trade and commerce. In 1806, he defeated Russia and Prussia at Jena, and he was now the dictator of continental Europe. He used his power in an endeavor to close the ports of the continent against English ships. By a decree issued from Berlin, he forbade all European nations to trade with England. This was a severe blow to British merchants, and the British Government retaliated by forbidding other nations to trade with France, and ordering foreign vessels to touch at British ports on pain of seizure. Between these two decrees, the vessels of neutral nations found it impossible to carry on their commerce, and the United States of America, which had hitherto a large carrying trade, was so vexed at England's harshness and obstinacy that it declared war against her in 1812. The Americans complained, also, of English vessels claiming the right to search American vessels for deserting seamen. The war that followed was waged principally in Canada, and ended in 1815, by the matters in dispute being left unsettled. Nothing was gained by either nation in this unnatural and foolish war.

11. Peninsular War.—Napoleon had become so puffed up with his successes, that he began to make and unmake kings at pleasure. His brothers and relations had kingdoms carved out for them in different parts of Europe, at the expense of the old ruling families. His pride and arrogance carried him so far that at last he dethroned the King of Spain and put his own brother Joseph in his place. This was more than the Spaniards could endure and they called on England for aid. The rising man at this time in English politics was George Canning. He was Minister of Foreign Affairs, and he determined to help the Spanish people. Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had distinguished himself in wars in India, and Sir John Moore were sent with a small force to Portugal. Wellesley defeated Marshal Junot at Vimiero in Aug. 1808, but a foolish "Convention," or agreement, was made at Cintra without his consent, by which the French were permitted to leave Portugal. Wellesley was recalled to England, and Sir John Moore advanced into Spain. He found the Spanish troops that he was sent to aid utterly unreliable, although they would fight well enough in small "guerilla" bands. Moore learned that Bonaparte himself was marching on Madrid with 70,000 men, and as he had only 25,000 he prudently

retreated towards the coast where he expected to find his ships. He was pursued at first by Napoleon, and afterwards by Marshal Soult, with a large array, in the hope of overtaking him before he reached the coast. When Moore arrived at Corunna the vessels in which he meant to embark his men were nowhere to be seen, and while waiting for them, the French army attacked his small force. On the



16th Jan. 1809, was fought the famous battle of Corunna, in which Moore, perhaps the most promising general in the British army, was killed. The French were defeated with a loss of 3,000 men, and Moore's army was allowed to embark without molestation. Moore himself was buried by his sorrowing comrades on the battlefield. So ended England's first effort to drive the French out of Spain.

But Canning was not dismayed. He sent Wellesley back again, but with an army altogether too small, and too badly supplied, for such a campaign as he had to carry on. For four years did Wellesley struggle against large French armies, with little support from his friends in England, or from his Spanish allies. In spite of tremendous difficulties he drove the French out of Portugal, and won

victory after victory over them in Spain. In 1809, he defeated Marshal Soult at Oporto, and Marshal Victor at Talavera. He then retreated before a large army under Marshal Massena, and constructed a strong line of defences at Torres Vedras, near Lisbon, and on the coast of Portugal. Massena found he could not pass Wellesley's fortifications, and he had to retreat with great loss, for Wellesley had caused the whole country to be laid bare of cattle and food, and when Massena's army began to retreat the stragglers were cut off in great numbers by the enraged Spanish guerilla bands. Wellesley, now Viscount Wellington, followed up the French retreat and won many battles. He took by storm the two strong fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos in 1812, defeated the French at Salamanca and Vittoria in 1812 and 1813, and drove Joseph Bonaparte out of Spain. The successful siege of St. Sebastian in 1813, was followed in 1814 by the battle of Toulouse, the last battle of the Peninsular War.

12. Russian Campaign.—In 1812, Napoleon started with an army of half a million into Russia, to conquer that country. The Russian emperor had been on friendly terms with Napoleon for a few years, but Napoleon's Berlin decree, by which Russia was not permitted to trade with England, proved a great hardship to the Russian people, and they soon began to import English manufactures, against Napoleon's orders. This led to the breaking up of the alliance between Russia and France, and to Napoleon's invasion. At the battle of Borodino, in September 1812, the Russians were defeated after a fierce struggle, and then Napoleon pressed on to Moscow, the chief city in Russia. Rather than permit the French army to winter there, the Russians set fire to the city, and Napoleon, without food or shelter for his troops, had to begin a retreat. Winter now came on, and the retreating French, without proper clothing and food, died daily by the thousand. The Russians hung on the rear, cutting off the weary stragglers as they fell behind the main body of the army. So out of the great host that went with light hearts to an easy conquest, only 20,000 returned. Encouraged by Napoleon's misfortunes, Austria and Prussia now rose against the tyrant, and joining their forces with those of Russia, met and defeated him after three days of fighting, at Leipzig, in October, 1813. Step by step Napoleon was now driven back, until the armies of the allies entered Paris in 1814. Napoleon

had to give up his throne, and be content with ruling over the little island of Elba, which was given him as his kingdom by his victorious foes.

13. Waterloo, 1815.—Louis XVIII., the brother of Louis XVI., was now made King of France, and the Allies began to re-arrange the map of Europe, which had been thrown into sad confusion by Napoleon's conquests. Before they had made much progress, they were startled by the news that Napoleon had, after eleven months absence, returned to France, and was making his way towards Paris. His old soldiers gladly rallied around him, Louis XVIII. fled from Paris, and Napoleon was once more on the French throne. The Allies hastened to gather their forces to crush him, and England and Prussia soon had armies in the field. Napoleon saw that his only chance was to defeat the English and Prussians separately before they could unite their forces. He marched north into Belgium, and on June 16, 1815, met and defeated the Prussians at Ligny. The same day the English and Belgians under Wellington were attacked at Quatre Bras by Marshal Ney. Wellington repulsed Ney, but hearing of the Prussian defeat at Ligny, he fell back to the field of Waterloo, nine miles from Brussels, to keep up his line of communication with Blücher, the Prussian general. There, on the 18th of June, 1815, Wellington and Napoleon met for the first and only time on the battlefield. Wellington's army was largely made up of Belgians and Germans, while his English troops were, many of them, raw levies and untried in battle. In numbers the armies were nearly equal, but Napoleon had with him the veterans of his army, besides being much superior to Wellington in cavalry and artillery. Wellington's hope was to hold the French at bay until Blücher and the Prussians could arrive in the early afternoon. Napoleon, on the other hand, hoped by the deadly play of his artillery, and the fierce charges of his cavalry to break the British ranks. As the day wore on, and Wellington saw his thin lines growing thinner under the desperate charges of the French cavalry and the fire of their artillery, he began to long for "Night or Blücher." At last, about five in the afternoon, the sound of distant firing was heard, and a little later it was seen that the Prussians had arrived, and were attacking the flank of the French army. Napoleon saw that but one chance remained, and that was by a desperate charge of his Old Guard to break the British lines

before help from the Prussians could reach them. These trusted veterans came gallantly forward, but when near the British lines they met with such a deadly volley of musketry, followed by such a fierce bayonet charge of the British infantry, that they wavered, turned, and fled. The victory was won, Napoleon's career was ended, and Europe was saved. The Prussians pursued the fleeing French far into the night, cutting down the fugitives without mercy. Napoleon himself fled to Paris, and a little later surrendered to the captain of a British man-of-war. He was banished to the lonely and rocky island of St. Helena, where six years after he died, May 5, 1821. Louis XVIII. came back to the French throne, and the great struggle for European freedom was over.

14. Condition of the Nation.—The long war was ended, and the nation found itself with over 800 millions of debt, much of it contracted in paying great sums to the Allies to keep their armies in the field. No nation had suffered so little from this desperate struggle as England, partly because she was free from invasion, and partly because she was the mistress of the sea, and controlled the carrying trade of the world. Her manufactures were sold in every European market and her industries suffered little check, until the poverty of other nations became so great as to prevent them from buying. But now that the war was over thousands of men were thrown out of employment, and when the crops failed in 1816, the high duty on wheat made food so dear as to cause a famine. The labour-saving machines were blamed for taking away employment from starving workingmen, and riots followed in which organized efforts were made to destroy the new and hated machinery.

The war had so fully taken the attention of the king's ministers and of Parliament, that all political reforms had ceased. George III. had become permanently insane in 1810, and his son George was appointed Regent. The Regent was a worthless profligate, and his base actions made him unpopular with the people. So, for some years after the war, there was great distress and much political discontent among the people, which was increased by the harsh laws passed by Parliament against freedom of speech.

15. Literature and Inventions.—George III. died in 1820, after the longest reign in our history, and was succeeded by his son George IV. The chief features of this eventful reign have been

sketched ; but no mention has been made of the great men who made England famous by their writings and scientific discoveries. For it was during this time that Robertson wrote his histories of Scotland, Spain, and America, that Gibbon composed his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, and that Adam Smith gave to the world his *Wealth of Nations*. Samuel Johnson wrote essays, criticisms, and poems, but he is best remembered by his *Dictionary*, published in the reign of George II. Goldsmith, who talked like "Poor Poll," wrote charming tales and essays. His name will never be forgotten while the *Vicar of Wakefield* retains its well deserved popularity. But the most remarkable feature of all this literary activity is the long list of great poets who lived and wrote during the latter half of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century. For this literary outburst we must give some credit to the hopes and fears aroused by the great upheaval in the social and political life of France. Cowper, Burns, Shelley, Keats, Byron, Campbell, Coleridge, Southey, Wordsworth, Moore, and Scott, are names of poets second only to those of Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton. But Scott (Sir Walter) ranks higher as a novelist than as a poet, and the author of the *Waverley Novels*, still holds the first place among the novelists of all climes and ages.

Towards the close of the reign, in 1807, two Americans, Fulton and Livingston, moved a vessel up the Hudson River by steam, and a little later, in 1813, steam-navigation was tried on a small scale on the Clyde. Scientific discoveries were made by such men as Herschel, Davey, and Priestly, while Josiah Wedgewood taught the people of Staffordshire the art of making beautiful and graceful pottery.

CHAPTER XXV.

A PERIOD OF REFORM.

1. **George IV.**—The last of the four Georges had been the acting king for ten years before his father's death, and the nation knew him too well to expect much in the way of good from his hands. His admirers called him "The First Gentleman in Europe," by which

they meant that in polish of manner and external grace he was a very fine gentleman. Nevertheless, he was, all through his life, a cowardly, licentious man, who would stoop to any act of meanness and treachery. Fortunately, his personal influence was small, and beyond raising a storm of national indignation at the beginning of his reign by trying in vain to force a Bill through Parliament to secure a divorce from his wife, Queen Caroline, his occupancy of the throne made little difference in English affairs.

2. Holy Alliance.—There was considerable unrest and discontent at the beginning of this reign, arising almost entirely from hard times, and the harsh laws passed by the Government against the right of the people to meet and discuss public affairs. One outcome of this feeling was an attempt, called the Cato Street Conspiracy, to murder the ministry, in 1820. The conspirators were seized, some were put to death, and others banished for life.

Abroad, the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the Kings of Prussia, France, and Spain, formed an alliance, called the "Holy Alliance," to crush out any efforts that might be made by their subjects to increase their freedom, or secure their rights. This alliance was the result of the fear aroused by the French Revolution, and of the growing feeling in Europe in favour of liberty. The British Government, and Lord Castlereagh, the Foreign Secretary, in particular, were charged with being too friendly to the Holy Alliance, and too hostile to the oppressed people of other nations. But Castlereagh's suicide, in 1822, removed one obstacle to a more liberal policy, and henceforth the tide of Reform began to flow more strongly, and with fewer interruptions.

3. Canning, Peel, and Huskisson.—After Castlereagh's death, George Canning, a brilliant and liberal-minded statesman, became Foreign Secretary. Unlike Castlereagh, he was a friend of the oppressed everywhere, and while he managed England's foreign affairs, his influence was thrown into the scale of freedom. He would not aid the Turks, who were trying to crush out a revolt in Greece, nor the Spanish, when their colonies in America rose to gain their independence. He saved Portugal from an attack from France and Spain, when Portugal sought to introduce Parliamentary Government. Nor was Canning indifferent to wrongs nearer

home. He was an earnest advocate of the rights of Dissenters and Roman Catholics, as well as of the slaves in the West Indies.

While Canning was using his influence abroad and at home in the interests of the wronged and oppressed, Robert Peel, the Home Secretary, was busy reforming the Criminal Laws. Sir Samuel Romilly, in the early part of this century, had tried earnestly to get Parliament to lessen the number of crimes punishable with death, and had succeeded in getting pocket-picking removed from the list of capital offences. There was, it is said, over 200 crimes for which a person could be hanged. To steal five shillings from a shop or a fish from a pond, to injure Westminster Bridge, was to incur the death penalty, and to be put into the same list with the forger and murderer. At last men saw the folly and cruelty of the Criminal Law, and Peel, in 1824, managed to get Parliament to consent to remove more than 100 of the smaller offences from the list to which the death penalty was attached.

Not less useful than Canning and Peel in carrying out reforms was Huskisson, the President of the Board of Trade. He saw that England was suffering from her trade and navigation laws, and from the unwise restrictions placed upon workingmen. He succeeded in reducing the duties on silk and wool, and had the laws repealed which prevented workingmen from travelling to seek employment in other parts of the country, as well as the law which gave a magistrate the power to fix the wages of labouring men. Besides, he paved the way for freer trade by offering foreign vessels special advantages in English ports, on the condition that the same privileges were given by foreign nations to English vessels.

The years 1825-6 were years of scarcity, and following as they did a commercial panic arising out of foolish speculation, there was much distress, and some rioting. The high duties on food had now to give way for a time, and Huskisson passed a law by which the duty on wheat *fell* as the price *rose*, and *rose* as the price *fell*. This was the famous "sliding scale" of duties, which lasted till free trade came in. The distress and lack of employment led to a large emigration to Canada, Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, and the United States.

4. The Australian Colonies.—New South Wales in Australia was now a flourishing colony, and although at first settled by convicts

it began about this time to receive a different kind of settlers. Many of the well-behaved convicts were given their freedom, and they and their descendants became good citizens. Other colonies were gradually founded, such as Queensland, Western Australia, and South Australia. Victoria now one of the most important colonies was once a part of New South Wales, and became a separate province in 1851. Large cities, in time, grew up, such as Sydney and Melbourne, the latter being founded in 1835.

5. Repeal of Test and Corporation Acts, 1828.—Lord Liverpool, the Prime Minister, died in 1827, and Canning was chosen to succeed him. Much was expected from such a liberal and clear-sighted man, but Canning died a few months after taking office, and shortly afterwards the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister with Sir Robert Peel as the leader in the House of Commons. Wellington was not a liberal or far-seeing statesman, but he was thoroughly honest and unselfish. And now after a century and a half of injustice, Roman Catholics and Dissenters were to have their wrongs righted. The Test and Corporation Acts had prevented Dissenters from holding offices in the towns and cities. In 1828 Lord John Russell brought in a Bill to do away with these laws and the measure was carried. Although willing to relieve Protestant Dissenters, the Government would not consent to repeal the laws shutting Roman Catholics out of Parliament. The laws against Roman Catholics were not so severe as they had been, for in 1817 they were allowed to enter the army and navy, and they had the right to vote for members of Parliament. Perhaps at this time the majority of the English people were as unwilling as Parliament and the Government to do justice to the Roman Catholics. But what a sense of justice would not do, necessity forced on the nation. Daniel O'Connell, an exceedingly clever and eloquent Irish barrister, persuaded the people of Clare County, Ireland, to elect him as a member of Parliament, although he knew he could not take his seat. In the meantime a large "Catholic Association" had been formed in Ireland, to agitate for the rights of the Catholics, and this Association became so powerful under O'Connell's guidance, that the Government began to fear another civil war in Ireland, if measures were not taken to quiet the excitement.

6. Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill, 1829.—The Government, Parliament, and the majority of English people were all opposed to giving Roman Catholics their rights, but Wellington, who knew what war was, saw it was his duty to yield. The House of Lords, on more than one occasion had prevented justice being done, and now Wellington used his great influence with that body to have a Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill passed in 1829. Wellington and Peel had done their duty, but in so doing had made themselves unpopular with the English people. In 1833, the Quakers were allowed to become members of Parliament, and in 1858 the same measure of justice was meted out to the Jews.

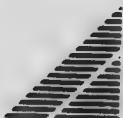
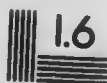
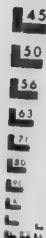
7. William IV.—In June, 1830, George IV. died. His only daughter, the Princess Charlotte, had died in 1817, and this left William, Duke of Clarence, as his successor. William IV. had been a commander in the navy, and hence was called the "Sailor King." He was a frank, hearty, well-intentioned man, who, in spite of the fact that his private life was none too pure, was popular with the people. He came to the throne at a time of great excitement in Europe. Revolution was in the air. The French drove out Charles X., and put Louis Philippe on the throne, and Belgium separated from Holland and became an independent nation. Had there been an unwise or unpopular king in England at this time, the excitement in favour of political reform might have led to another revolution.

8. Reform Bill of 1832.—While the war with Napoleon was going on, the English people had too much to think about to pay much attention to Parliamentary Reform. Now, however, that the war was over, a more liberal government in office, and the dread of a revolution passed away, intelligent people began to see how unjust it was that large cities like Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds should have no representatives in Parliament, while many small towns had the privilege of sending one or two. Still worse, quite a number of places that once had a population, but had lost it, continued to send members. In some cases there were only a dozen or a score of voters, and it is stated that in a county in Scotland, only one man voted, and he elected himself. Then there were a great number of small villages that sent members at the command of the land-owners, on whose estate the villages were



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built. If the land-owner was in need of money, he sold the right to the seat to some man who wished to be a member of Parliament, and these "nomination" boroughs soon came to have a regular market value. In other boroughs, the voters were so few that a rich candidate could easily buy their votes. So it can easily be seen that the British Parliament did not really represent the British people. Many met some of them intelligent and honest, dreaded any change, fearing that it would be the beginning of a revolution, or that good and able men would find it difficult to be elected, if votes were given to the people. One of these was Wellington, who thought that everything was just right, and that the system in use could not be improved.

It was the custom then to have a general election soon after a new sovereign came to the throne, and the election that took place in 1830, showed that Wellington and Peel had lost their popularity on account of the Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill. Soon after the new Parliament met the Government had to resign and Lord Grey became Prime Minister, with Lord John Russell as leader in the Commons. Russell lost no time in bringing in a Reform Bill, but it made so many changes that it passed its second reading by a majority of only one, and a little later an important change was made in it, when it came up again for discussion. The ministers now persuaded the king to dissolve Parliament, and have a new election. Although very few people had votes, yet the feeling was so strong throughout the country among the merchants, manufacturers, artisans, and workingmen that the election resulted in giving the Bill a large majority. A second Reform Bill was now introduced in the Commons and carried by a majority of 109, but when it went before the House of Lords it was thrown out. This caused intense indignation, and great meetings were held in different parts of the country to denounce the Lords and to encourage the supporters of the measure. In some places there were riots and burnings, and people began to fear that a revolution was near at hand. Once more did the Government bring in the measure, and once more it was carried by a large majority in the Commons, and rejected in the Lords. Lord Grey and his colleagues now resigned, and Wellington tried to form a Government, but failed. Grey was recalled, not, however, before he had secured a pledge from the king, that he would, if necessary, create sufficient new peers to carry the

Bill through the Lords. This alarmed the Lords and when the measure came before them in June, 1832, many stayed away from the House and in this manner the Reform Bill became law.

The changes made by this celebrated Bill were two-fold. First, it took away from many (56) small boroughs the right to send members to Parliament and it reduced the members of thirty other boroughs from two each to one. The members thus taken from small boroughs were given to large towns, cities, and counties in England, Scotland and Ireland. Secondly, the number of voters was greatly increased, for those who paid £10 a year rental in towns, and £50 a year in counties were given votes. Besides these, votes were given to copy-holders and lease-holders. The class that benefitted most by this change was the middle class, the labouring classes having to wait many years before the franchise was given to them. After the Reform Bill the old political parties changed their names, taking now the titles of *Conservative* and *Liberal*, instead of *Tory* and *Whig*.

9. Other Reforms.—Now that a reformed Parliament was elected, a great many much needed reforms were carried out. In 1833, after a struggle of fifty years, against slavery in the West Indies, Wilberforce died, but not before he saw it practically abolished, at a cost of £20,000,000 to the British nation. The same year laws were passed to protect children from over-work in factories, and a grant of money was made to schools for the poor. In 1834, the Poor-Law, which had become a great burden on the industrious portion of the population, was amended by compelling those who could not work or support their families to go to places called *work-houses*, where work was given them if they were able to do it. The change from *out-door* to *in-door* relief soon had a great effect in reducing pauperism.

Other important changes at this time were the Municipal Act (1835) providing for the election of the mayor and aldermen of towns and cities by the ratepayers, and a Bill (1836) permitting Dissenters to be married in their own chapels.

Nor must we forget improvements and reforms of another kind that were taking place. The need of better means to carry goods to market led to the making of *Macadamized* roads, that is roads made of broken stone, and introduced by a Scotchman called Mac-

Adam. Nevertheless, good roads and canals were not sufficient to meet the demands of English industry, and it was not till George Stephenson, the son of a poor collier, had overcome the difficulties of moving waggons along iron rails by means of a locomotive or steam-engine, that English products could find easy conveyance to their markets. The first railroad was built in 1825, from Manchester to Liverpool, and the train travelled at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour.

Besides these, other improvements were going on, such as founding Mechanics' Institutes, reducing the price of newspapers, building schools and colleges, and providing asylums for the insane. It is sad to think that, while so many things were being done to improve the lot of the poor, a great many were suffering from want, part of which was caused by the many improvements in labour-saving machines. So, in the year 1837, when William IV. died, there were many families in England that could scarcely afford to buy the coarsest food and clothing.

CHAPTER XXVI.

HISTORY OF OUR OWN TIMES.

1. **Victoria.**—William IV., like George IV., left no child as heir to the throne. He was succeeded by Victoria, the daughter of the Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. The young queen at the time of her accession was but eighteen years of age, nevertheless, she had been so carefully trained and educated under her mother's watchful eye that, when she came to the throne, it was with a deep sense of the duties she had to discharge, and with a fixed resolve to keep the good of her people always before her. During the fifty-five years of her rule, she has earned the love and respect not of her subjects alone, but of the people of all nations, by her pure domestic life, and by her faithful discharge of every private and public duty.

Her accession to the throne made it necessary to separate Hanover from the Crown of England. the laws of Hanover not permitting a

woman to rule. The queen's uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, now became King of Hanover, and England was no longer in danger of being drawn into European wars on account of this German kingdom.

2. Rebellion in Canada.—One of the first difficulties to be dealt with in this reign was a rebellion in Lower Canada. Canada had been divided into two Provinces, in 1791, by a measure known as the Constitutional Act. This Act also gave each Province a Parliament, composed of a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a Legislative Assembly. As Fox foresaw and pointed out at the time, the Act was full of defects, for it did not give the elected Assembly the full control of the revenue, and it did not make the Legislative Council and the Executive responsible to the people. The Act had many other defects besides these mentioned, and resulted in so much bad government in Lower and Upper Canada that some of the more hot-headed and impulsive of the people began a rebellion. The first risings were in Lower Canada, and thence the rebellion spread into Upper Canada in 1837. Lord Durham was sent out to inquire into the cause of the trouble, and he gave a report which pointed out very clearly the evils under which Canada was suffering, and outlined the proper method of dealing with the colony. Durham's report became, soon after, the basis of a new and better policy towards the colonies. The rebellion did not last long, but its fruits were the union of Upper and Lower Canada in one province in 1840, and the beginning of true responsible government in Canada. The two Provinces remained united till 1867, when owing to a deadlock between the two great political parties of the colony, the British North America Act was passed, which established a Federal form of government in British North America, leaving the different Provinces the control of their own local affairs, and establishing a Federal Parliament for the management of the general business of the Dominion of Canada. Beyond appointing the Governor-General and arranging treaties of commerce England now leaves Canada to look after her own interests, and interferes as little as possible with her affairs.

3. Rise of the Chartists.—The early years of this reign are marked by the introduction of the electric telegraph, Morse in America, and Wheatstone and Cooke in England, dividing the

honour of the invention between them in 1837. In 1838 steamships crossed the Atlantic, and in 1839 Sir Rowland Hill succeeded in getting the Government to carry letters to any part of Great Britain and Ireland for a penny. All these changes were in the interest of trade and commerce, and cheap postage was a great boon to the poor ; nevertheless, work was scarce, food was dear, and there was much distress among the working classes. The Reform Bill had given political power to the middle classes, but had left the great mass of workingmen without any voice in the affairs of the nation. They began to think that their troubles were mainly due to the bad laws made without their consent, and an agitation began for further reforms. In 1838, at a great meeting in Birmingham, a formal demand was made for the "People's Charter." This charter asked (1) that all men should have votes ; (2) for annual Parliaments ; (3) for voting by ballot ; (4) that a man might be a member of Parliament without owning any land ; (5) that members of Parliament should be paid ; (6) that the country should be divided into equal electoral districts. Most of these demands have since been granted, but at that time the upper and middle classes felt no inclination to share their power with their less fortunate countrymen.

4. Anti-Corn Law League.—Meanwhile it was beginning to be felt that one cause of the poverty of the working classes was to be found in the laws which placed a high tax on food and the raw material of manufactures coming into this country. We have seen that Walpole, Pitt, and Huskisson had each done something to lessen duties and make trade freer. The landowners, however, were very powerful in Parliament, and to keep up their rents they had heavy duties placed on wheat coming into the country. Whenever crops failed, bread became dear, and the poor were often on the verge of starvation. At last, Richard Cobden, a cotton printer, took the lead in forming a league which had for its object the removal of the taxes on food, and the lowering of duties on other imports. This league was formed in 1838, and under the guidance of Richard Cobden, and John Bright, a carpet manufacturer, it soon made its influence felt all over the land. Cobden and Bright were very clear-headed, able men, and by their speeches and writings they convinced the people that the taxes on food were unjust to the poor

and the cause of most of the distress that prevailed so frequently. Nevertheless the landowners and farmers bitterly opposed the movement, and it took eight years to convince the government that a change would be in the interests of the nation.

5. Troubles at Home and Abroad.—The Liberal party, which carried out so many reforms between 1832 and 1837, gradually lost its popularity; many people growing tired of, and others being offended by, so many changes. The Government at the beginning of the queen's reign had, as its head, Lord Melbourne, an easy-going, good-natured man, who proved a good friend to the young queen, although he was but an indifferent statesman. In 1841 his ministry had become so weak that it was obliged to resign, and give way to a Conservative government under Sir Robert Peel. In 1840 the queen was married to her cousin Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, a prince who proved a devoted husband, and a true friend to the people among whom he cast his lot.

Meanwhile, in 1839, a war had started with China, because English traders insisted on selling opium to the Chinese against the order of the Chinese government. The war came to an end in 1842, by the Chinese being compelled to open their ports to this wicked traffic.

At home, there was trouble in Ireland, and a religious agitation in Scotland. In Ireland O'Connell had begun to agitate for a Repeal of the Union, and so dangerous seemed the movement that O'Connell was at length arrested and tried for sedition in 1843-44. In Scotland the Presbyterian Church was rent by an agitation against the State controlling the Church, an agitation which ended in the "Free Church" being founded in 1843. Nor was England free from excitement and unrest. The Chartists were busy trying to make converts to their views, and the Anti-Corn Law League was equally zealous in showing the evils of the Corn Laws.

But all these troubles seemed small compared with a dreadful disaster which, in 1841, befell British troops in Afghanistan. The English had been gradually extending their territory in India towards the Indus and Afghanistan. This country lies between India and the Russian possessions in Asia, and the English were afraid that its ruler, Dost Mohammed, was too friendly towards Russia. Lord Auckland, the Governor-General of India, therefore

sent an army to Cabul, the capital of Afghanistan, dethroned Dost Mohammed and put another chief in his place. This led to the fierce and treacherous Afghans murdering the English ambassador, and to a rising under Akbar Khan against the British troops. General Elphinstone, who commanded the army, resolved to retreat to India, and was promised protection for himself and his men, and for the women and children they were forced to leave behind. But when the army, in the depth of winter, tried to go through the rocky and narrow Cabul Pass, the Afghans attacked them so savagely and continuously, firing into and cutting down the wretched and weary soldiers, that only one man succeeded in reaching India alive. Dr. Brydon, the sole survivor of 4,500 soldiers, and 12,000 camp followers, told the sad tale to Sir Robert Sale at Jellalabad, and at once vengeance was determined upon. General Pollock and Sir Robert Sale marched into Afghanistan, retook Cabul, and rescued the women and children that had been left behind.

6. Repeal of the Corn Laws.—Let us now see what success Cobden and Bright were having in their crusade against the Corn Laws. For a time the speeches and pamphlets of the leaders of the League produced little effect, but the distress among the poor, and the failure of the harvest in 1845 helped along the movement for cheap food. Peel was gradually being convinced that Cobden was right, and when, in 1845, the crops failed so seriously in England and Scotland, and the potato blight destroyed the chief article of food of the Irish, he saw that he had to choose between leaving thousands of people to die of starvation, and taking off the duty on food. Peel had now become fully convinced that the corn laws should be repealed, and as his Ministry did not agree with him, he resigned his post, and advised the queen to call in Lord John Russell. Russell could not form a strong Government, and Peel had to return to office. Aided by the Liberals, and a portion of the Conservatives, he brought in a Bill, in 1846, to repeal the Corn Laws, which was carried in both Houses. The Corn Laws were repealed, but Peel's political career was ended. He had made bitter enemies of many of his old supporters, who looked upon him as a deserter, and they took their revenge by joining the Liberals to defeat him in 1846, on a "Coercion" Bill for Ireland. Lord John Russell now became Prime Minister.

7. End of the Chartist Agitation.—The duties on food were gradually reduced, and, in 1849, the Navigation laws were repealed. Step by step England removed the duties on nearly all the articles brought into the country, until now her revenue from that source is raised on a few luxuries such as tea, tobacco, and liquors of all kinds.

The repeal of the Corn Laws helped to make the poor more contented with their lot, and gave a great impulse to British manufactures and commerce. It was well that it did for, from 1846 to 1849, stirring events were taking place abroad and at home. In 1847 there was a dreadful famine in Ireland and millions died or emigrated to America. The poverty and misery of the Irish led to a rising under Smith O'Brien, but it was soon put down. In England, the Chartists drew up a monster petition to be presented to Parliament. It was said to be signed by five millions of people. Fergus O'Connor, the weak-headed leader of the Chartists, called a great meeting to be held on Kensington Common, and proposed that the people should go to the House of Commons to back up the petition. So loud were the Chartists in their boasts of what they would do, that all London grew alarmed, and 200,000 men were sworn in as special constables for the occasion. Wellington posted soldiers at various points to defend the city, and everybody awaited the great procession. But when the day came only 25,000 assembled, and the procession did not take place. The petition when presented was found to have less than two million names attached, and of these many were forged. This ended the Chartist agitation, although many of the reforms demanded were afterwards granted. Cheap food had killed the Chartist movement.

8. Extension of Territory.—Meanwhile, in India, Britain was extending her empire. Sir Charles Napier conquered Scinde in 1843, and in 1845 a war began with the brave Sikhs of the Punjab, which ended in the annexation of that fine territory in 1849.

The discovery of gold, in 1851, in Victoria, Australia, led to a large emigration to that colony, which greatly increased its population and resources. In Africa, too, British territory was extending, and Natal and Cape Colony became important colonies. New Zealand began to be colonized in 1839, and in spite of fierce wars with the Maori chiefs the whole island became a British possession.

In 1850 a Bill was passed giving self-government to the Australian colonies, and, in 1852, New Zealand was given the same boon.

9. The Eastern Questic 1.—The year 1851 was noted for the first great Exhibition of the industries of all nations. It was very largely an idea of Prince Albert, who, with others, thought it would bring about an age of peace and good-will among all peoples. It was held in London, and though many greater Exhibitions have since been held, yet none aroused so great curiosity and so much hope for the future.

The same year Prince Louis Napoleon, the President of the French Republic, by a treacherous massacre of his opponents in the streets of Paris, succeeded in obtaining the control of French affairs, and a year later made himself Emperor. He was the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, and the British naturally feared that this second Napoleon might try to imitate the policy of his uncle, and plunge Europe into another great war. Their fears led to regiments of volunteers being formed in 1852, and so we have the beginning of the volunteer system now so popular and useful.

Napoleon, however, was friendly to England, and it was not long before France and England were fighting side by side to save Turkey from the ambition of Russia. Russia had for many years looked with longing eyes on Constantinople, and when a quarrel broke out, in 1852, about the rights of the Greek and Latin Churches over the Holy Places in Jerusalem, the Emperor Nicholas of Russia, thought it a good opportunity to demand the right to protect the Greek Christians that lived in the Sultan's dominions. Nicholas wished England to join Russia in making a division of Turkey's possessions, but this England would not do. Then, when Turkey refused to admit Russia's claim to protect the Sultan's Christian subjects, Nicholas took the law into his own hands, and sent troops into the Turkish provinces on the Danube.

10. The Crimean War.—War now began and the Turks, who when aroused are brave soldiers, defeated the Russians near the Danube. France and England, in 1854, came to the aid of the Turks, for England feared Russia's influence in Asia, and the Emperor Napoleon thought successful war would make the French forget the loss of their freedom. England had not taken part in a great war for nearly forty years, and she was wholly

unprepared for such a conflict as she was now entering upon. Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, was a lover of peace, and not fitted to manage affairs at such a time. The chief seat of the war was the Crimea, on the Black Sea, although the Baltic, the White Sea, and Russian Armenia were the scenes of strife. Kars, a fortress in Armenia, was bravely defended by the Turks under General Williams (afterwards the commander of the British troops in Canada), but at last surrendered with honorable terms near the close of the war.

It was the beginning of September when the Allies reached the Crimea, and not long after, September 20, they defeated the Russians at the River Alma. The Russians now retreated to Sebastopol, a strong fortress in the Crimea, and the delay of the Allies gave them time to strengthen its defences. The French were commanded by Marshal St. Arnaud, and the English by Lord Raglan. Both commanders died before the war ended, and were replaced by General Pélissier and General Simpson. The siege of Sebastopol began, but it was found that the Russian engineer, Todleben, had done his work well, and the Allies were for nearly a year held at bay. At times the Russians strove to drive the Allies back, and at Balaclava a fierce contest took place, which served to bring out the heroic qualities of the British soldier. Lord Cardigan, the commander of the Light Brigade, was ordered to charge the enemy and retake some guns which had fallen into their hands, but he mistook the order, and, instead, commanded his men to charge the main body of the Russian army. His men knew it was almost certain death, but no man hesitated. Six hundred men rode headlong into the midst of the Russian army, cutting down the Russian gunners on their way and then rode back amid a deadly hail from Russian muskets and artillery. Six hundred went into that "valley of death," less than a hundred returned to the ranks of the British army. The battle was fought on the 25th October, and on the 5th November a bloody battle was fought at Inkermann, in which the British private showed that his intelligence was more than a match for the brute force of the brave but ignorant Russian soldiery.

The siege of Sebastopol went on throughout the winter in spite of the terrible sufferings of the British soldiers. Mismanagement at home and in the Crimea left the soldiers without proper clothing

shelter and food. Shiploads of food were sent, which never reached the men. A cargo of boots did reach the half-shod men, but the boots were found to be all for one foot. These are but illustrations of the management of the war. The soldiers fell sick and could not be properly nursed and cared for. The result was that many died whose lives might have been saved under proper care. At last, Miss Florence Nightingale and a band of devoted women went out to nurse the sick and wounded. Very soon there was a marked change for the better in the condition of the patients, and from that time the value of women in army hospitals has been fully recognized. As time passed the war was better managed; there was less sickness among the soldiers, and better means were found of providing them with the necessary food, clothing, and shelter. In England, the discontent with the way things were going on led to Lord Aberdeen resigning, and to Lord Palmerston becoming Prime Minister. The siege of Sebastopol still went on, and at length attempts were made to carry it by storm. The first assault failed; the second was more successful. The French carried the Malakoff Tower, and although the English were repulsed at the Redan, the Russians blew up the forts, and left Sebastopol to the Allies, September, 1855. Soon after, in March, 1856, peace was made, and Russia, in the Treaty of Paris, agreed not to rebuild the fortifications of Sebastopol, and not to keep a fleet on the Black Sea.

11. The Indian Mutiny.—Scarcely was the Russian war ended, when a more serious trouble arose in India. The natives of India were not kindly treated by the English, and the discontent aroused was such that some fresh grievance was all that was needed to cause an outbreak. This grievance was found in the introduction of greased cartridges for the rifles of the Sepoys or native soldiers. The Sepoys thought it a great sin to use grease in any way, and when the Government found how much they were excited, they changed the greased for smooth paper. It was of no avail, the feeling grew that the English sought to make the soldiers lose their caste. Gradually the discontent increased, until three Sepoy regiments mutinied at Meerut near Delhi, and marched to Delhi, where an aged native king lived. Him they took out of his palace and made emperor. The rebellion now spread rapidly through Upper India, and the few thousand Englishmen in the country had to defend themselves against a host of enraged natives. Lord Canning, the

Governor-General, was a brave, capable man, and he was supported by able officers and brave soldiers. Sir John Lawrence sent his Sikhs and a few British troops to besiege Delhi, and Sir Henry Lawrence the Governor of Oude, gathered the British residents into the Governor's residence at Lucknow, where it was hoped they could hold out till relief came.

At Cawnpore, Nana Sahib, a native prince, when he heard Sir Henry Havelock was coming to the rescue, massacred the men, women, and children of the Europeans, July 15, 1857. The news of the horrible cruelties of Nana Sahib filled the British troops with a burning desire for revenge, which was with difficulty restrained by Canning. Soon the tide of war changed against the Sepoys. Delhi was taken, and Lucknow was relieved by Havelock, after a four months' siege. Highland regiments came on the scene under Sir James Outram and Sir Colin Campbell, and gradually the rebellion was crushed. The brutal massacre at Cawnpore was avenged by blowing from the cannon's mouth several of those who had taken an active part in that dreadful tragedy.

12. India under the Crown.—The Mutiny had some important results. Havelock, the brave Christian soldier, and the hero of the war, died of the hardships of the campaign. The British Government now resolved to take away from the East India Company its right of governing India. In 1858 India was placed under the Crown, and from that time has been governed by a Viceroy and Council under a Secretary for India, who is a member of the British Cabinet. The result is better government, and greater attention is paid to the feelings and prejudices of the natives, who are an intelligent and sensitive people.

13. Recent Wars.—Since the Indian Mutiny, Britain has been engaged in no great war. Several minor wars have, however, taken place, of which the following are the most important: (1) a war with China in 1855, and another in 1860, which led to opening up more of the Chinese ports to foreign trade; (2) an invasion of Afghanistan in 1879-80 to avenge the murder of an English envoy, Sir Louis Cavagnari; (3) two wars against the Zulus and Boers in South Africa in 1879-81 in which there was great loss of life; (4) a war in the Soudan in 1884-5 to support the Khedive, or ruler of Egypt, against the Arabs. It was in this war that General

Gordon lost his life while defending Khartoum, and that Canadian boatmen helped to take a British army up the Nile in boats.

14. Reform Bills.—Let us now turn from these events in other lands and see what changes were taking place at home. While Lord Palmerston lived great reforms were not encouraged, but after his death the question of giving more political power to the working classes came to the front. Lord John Russell tried to pass a Reform Bill in 1866, and failed. Then Mr. Disraeli took office and, under his leadership, the Conservatives helped in carrying through a Reform Bill much more radical than that of Lord John Russell. The Reform Bill of 1867 gave votes to householders and lodgers in boroughs who paid rates and £10 rent, while in counties those who paid £12 rates were allowed to vote. Voting by ballot was made law in 1872, and a third Reform Bill was passed in 1884, by Mr. Gladstone, which gave votes to nearly every man, whether in town or county, and added 2,500,000 voters to the roll of electors. In 1835 a Redistribution Bill divided the country into more equal electoral districts, and increased the number of members for Scotland. In 1858 the volunteers were more thoroughly organized, and, in 1860, Cobden succeeded in making a treaty with France which encouraged freer trade between the two countries.

14. American Civil War.—In 1861 a civil war broke out in the United States of America, which led to great suffering among the operatives in the cotton factories of Lancashire. Most of the raw cotton used by England was brought from the Southern States, and as the war closed the ports of the South, its cotton could not find its way to the English markets. Thousands of workers were, in consequence, thrown out of employment when the mills were closed for want of raw cotton, and large sums of money had to be raised to keep the families of the operatives from starving. Nor was this the only bad effect of the war. Some of the British people were in sympathy with the South, and their desire to see the revolt successful led to allowing the Southerners to have ships built in British dockyards. One of these, the *Alabama*, did a great deal of injury to the merchant vessels of the North, and when the war was over England had to pay a heavy bill of damages for allowing the *Alabama* to escape from British ports.

15. Important Acts.—The year 1861 is memorable for the

death of Prince Albert, and 1863, for the marriage of the Prince of Wales to Alexandra, daughter of the King of Denmark. In 1869, a long delayed measure of justice was meted out to Ireland. The English Church in Ireland was disestablished and its revenues, after making due provision for the existing clergy, were set aside for the relief of the poor in Ireland. This Act was followed in 1870 by an Irish Land Act, which gave the tenants a more secure hold on their land, and did not leave them so much at the mercy of their landlords. They had henceforth a right to compensation for improvements they might make, in case they were turned out of their holdings.

A very important measure was the Education Act of 1870, which was brought into Parliament by Mr. Foster. It provided for the building and support of schools at the expense of the ratepayers, where there were not enough schools to educate all the children of the parish. Before this Act was passed, the masses had to depend for their education on private schools, and on schools under the control of the different Churches. To carry out this law School Boards were formed, the members of which were elected by the people. A few years later, parents were compelled by law to send their children to school; and, very recently, steps have been taken to make the education of a child in the Public Schools nearly as free as in Canada. Religious tests, too, were done away with, in 1871, in the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin, so that all classes and creeds can attend these great seats of learning and get the advantage of a university education. Quite recently, in 1888, a measure was passed which gave the people of England a greater control over their own local affairs. These are perhaps the most important measures that have been passed in recent years, most of them under the leadership of Mr. Gladstone. In May, 1886, this great statesman joined Mr. Parnell, the leader of the Irish members, in a demand for Irish "Home Rule," that is, a demand for a Parliament in Dublin to look after Irish affairs. A "Home Rule" Bill was introduced into Parliament, but it failed to carry, and in the general election that followed Mr. Gladstone was defeated and gave way to Lord Salisbury. Mr. Parnell, the Irish leader, died in 1891. Mr. Gladstone came into office once more in 1892, and again attempted to carry through Parliament a measure in favour of Home Rule. His Bill passed the House of Commons

by a small majority, but suffered an overwhelming defeat in the House of Lords. Since that time Home Rule has played no important part in Imperial politics.

16. Mr. Gladstone.—In 1894, Mr. Gladstone resigned office, and was succeeded in the Premiership by Lord Rosebery. Mr. Gladstone's great age and devoted service to the nation, it was recognized, entitled him to a few years of repose at the close of life. He was offered a peerage, but declined the honour. Four years later, at the advanced age of 88, he died—regretted not only by his own people, but by every nation where liberty is prized : for Gladstone was ever the champion of the down-trodden and the oppressed. His successor, Lord Rosebery, held office for but a brief period, and then the control of British affairs passed into the hands of the Conservatives and Liberal-Unionists, with the Marquis of Salisbury as Prime Minister.

17. Foreign and Colonial Affairs.—During the year 1896, what threatened for a time to be a serious question in international affairs arose in consequence of a dispute with Venezuela as to the true boundary between that country and British Guiana. The matter was in itself of little importance ; but the hasty and ill-advised action of the President of the United States, who insisted upon the right of the United States to interfere in any dispute in which the acquisition of American territory by European powers was involved, led to a temporary ill-feeling between the two great Anglo-Saxon nations. The whole matter was at last left to an arbitration commission, which practically decided that the British claims were just, and gave, in 1899, Britain 50,000 out of the 60,000 square miles in dispute. India, too, had her troubles. Several tribes on the north-west frontier, including the Afridis, became hostile, and only by the sacrifice of many lives were these brave but restless neighbours brought under control. Worse than the border wars, however, was the great famine in India, in 1897, which cost the nation many millions of pounds, to say nothing of the great number of unfortunate people who died of starvation. The Soudan, too, was in 1898 the scene of memorable events. An Anglo-Egyptian expedition under the command of General Kitchener, advanced up the Nile to punish the fanatical Dervishes, who threatened the

peace of Egypt, and to put a stop to the cruel slave-trade carried on by them in the Soudan. The battles of Atbara and Omdurman, in which many thousands of the Dervishes fell, fighting recklessly and bravely, led to the occupation of Khartoum, the city, it will be remembered, in which General Gordon lost his life. The Soudan was now placed under British rule, and thus another step was taken in extending civilization and good government on the Dark Continent.

18.—The Boer War.—Still another war, and that one of the costliest in which Britain and her colonies were ever engaged, has to be noted. Ever since the day when British soldiers gave up their arms at Majuba Hill, Feb. 27, 1881, British courage was held in low esteem by the Boers of South Africa. When, therefore, Mr. Gladstone, after the disastrous defeats of the war of 1881, granted the Boers of the Transvaal almost complete independence, his action was taken to mean that the British dreaded the prowess of the South African Dutch: hence the concessions made at that time by the British government. But the Boers were not yet satisfied. They were permitted to manage their own local affairs, but they were forbidden the practice of slavery, and Britain claimed the control of the foreign relations of the Transvaal, or South African Republic. A few years after the war of 1881, great gold mines were discovered in the Transvaal, and the Boers, too poor to work these mines themselves, were glad to have foreigners come in with their capital and develop their resources. As time passed the wealth from these mines made a great change in the Transvaal and its people. The foreign population promised to become larger than the Boer, and the latter, fearing that possibly outsiders might get control of their affairs, refused them any share in the government of the Transvaal, although they did not hesitate to profit by their enterprise, and grow rich at their expense. They also compelled these Uitlanders, or Outlanders, to pay most of the taxes, and even refused them the right to have English taught in their schools. Nevertheless the mines were so productive that these and other evils were submitted to for a time, and soon a large city, called Johannesburg, sprang up in the gold district. At last the treatment received by the Outlanders at the hands of the Boers became so unbearable that the

British government was appealed to for relief. The latter made many attempts to induce the Boers to right the wrongs of these Outlanders; but no concession would be made unless Great Britain agreed to give the Transvaal its complete independence. This demand was, of course, refused. Everything now began to look towards war, and the Boer Parliament, led by the President, Paul Kruger, fearing that if further time were given the British to bring more troops into South Africa, their cause would be in danger, declared war, Oct. 11, 1899. In this declaration the Transvaal was joined by the Orange Free State, which had no quarrel with Britain, but was moved by its sympathy for the Dutch cause, and perhaps by the desire to drive the British from South Africa, and make it one great Dutch Republic.

The war found the Boers well prepared. For years they had been accumulating a large supply of artillery and ammunition. Strong forts were built at different points and foreign soldiers enlisted. On the other hand, the British were not ready. A few thousand troops under General White had been brought from India, and others were on sea on their way to South Africa. Only a mere outline of the war that followed can be given. The Boers invaded Natal, and hemmed in General White at Ladysmith, in Natal. Another British force was shut up in Kimberley, the diamond town; and still another, under Col. Baden-Powell, at Mafeking, on the western frontier of the Transvaal. Gen Buller was at first appointed commander-in-chief in South Africa, and made an attempt to relieve Ladysmith. He suffered a severe repulse at Colenso, whilst almost at the same time Lord Methuen, after a few successes, met a most disastrous defeat at Magersfontein on the Modder River, when a famous Highland regiment was nearly destroyed. In the meantime colonial troops had gone to the aid of the mother country. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India, all were alike eager to bear their share of the common burden and face a common danger. The troops sent by the colonies were among the most serviceable and effective in a war which had many remarkable features. The disasters of the early part of the war led to Lord Roberts, now advanced in years, being sent out as commander-in-chief, with Lord Kitchener as his chief of staff. Troops were poured into South Africa until over 200,000 men were in the field. Soon the tide changed. Kimberley was

relieved by Gen. French ; Cronje, the Boer general, was overtaken at Paardeberg, on the Modder River, and compelled to surrender with over 4,000 men. Buller fought his way into Ladysmith and relieved General White, and another relieving force eventually succeeded in raising the siege of Mafeking, where Baden-Powell had shown remarkable skill and endurance in defence. Soon Roberts' victorious legions swept over the Free State, capturing Bloemfontein, the capital ; then onwards to Johannesburg, which offered no resistance, to Kruger's stronghold at Pretoria. Strange to say, this well-fortified town fell without a shot being fired. Kruger fled from his capital, and eventually made his way to Europe. The capture of Pretoria practically decided the war ; but the Boers, under their brave leaders, Botha, DeWet, and others, for a long time continued a most harassing guerilla warfare. The Orange Free State and the Transvaal were now formally declared parts of the British Empire.

19. Victoria the Good.—The year 1897 will be long remembered for its Diamond Jubilee Celebration, when the whole empire united in an expression of its joy and gratitude that good Queen Victoria had been spared to rule for the remarkably long term of 60 years. A little later the Queen paid a long anticipated visit to Ireland, where she received a thoroughly warm and generous reception. Age, however, was beginning to tell upon her great physical powers ; the sufferings caused by the South African war appealed strongly to her womanly sympathies, and it is said affected her health. In the early part of the year 1901 anxiety began to be felt by her medical attendants. In January she had a slight stroke of paralysis, and a few days later, January 22, passed peacefully away at Osborne Palace, Isle of Wight. There was one great burst of grief the wide world over, when the news was flashed over the wires that Queen Victoria was dead. No English sovereign was ever so beloved : and no sovereign on any throne, or in any age, so commanded the admiration, affection and esteem of all nations, as Queen Victoria the Good.

Her son, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, was immediately proclaimed King, under the good old Saxon title of Edward VII.

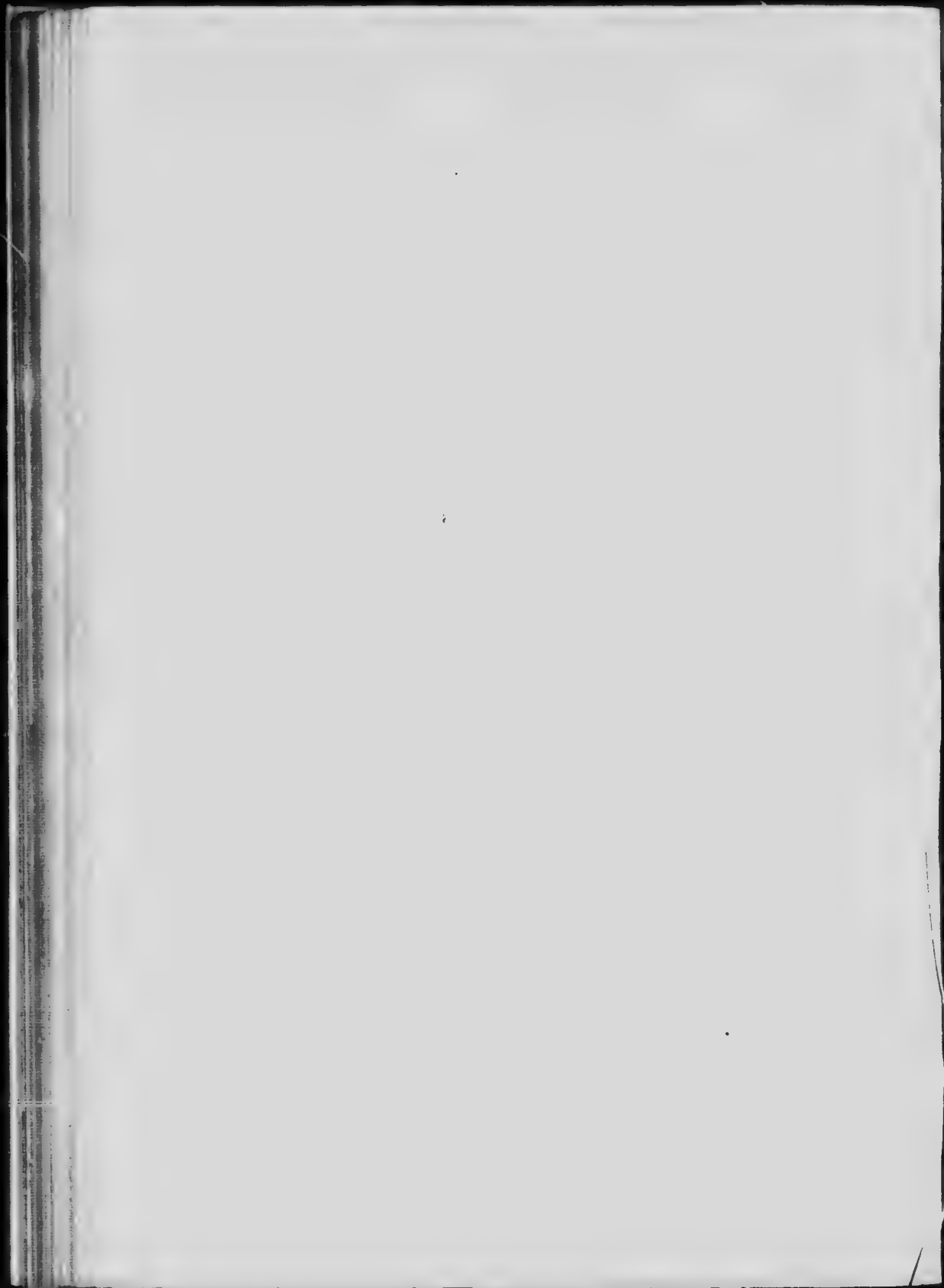
20. Advances in the Last Sixty Years.—The history of the

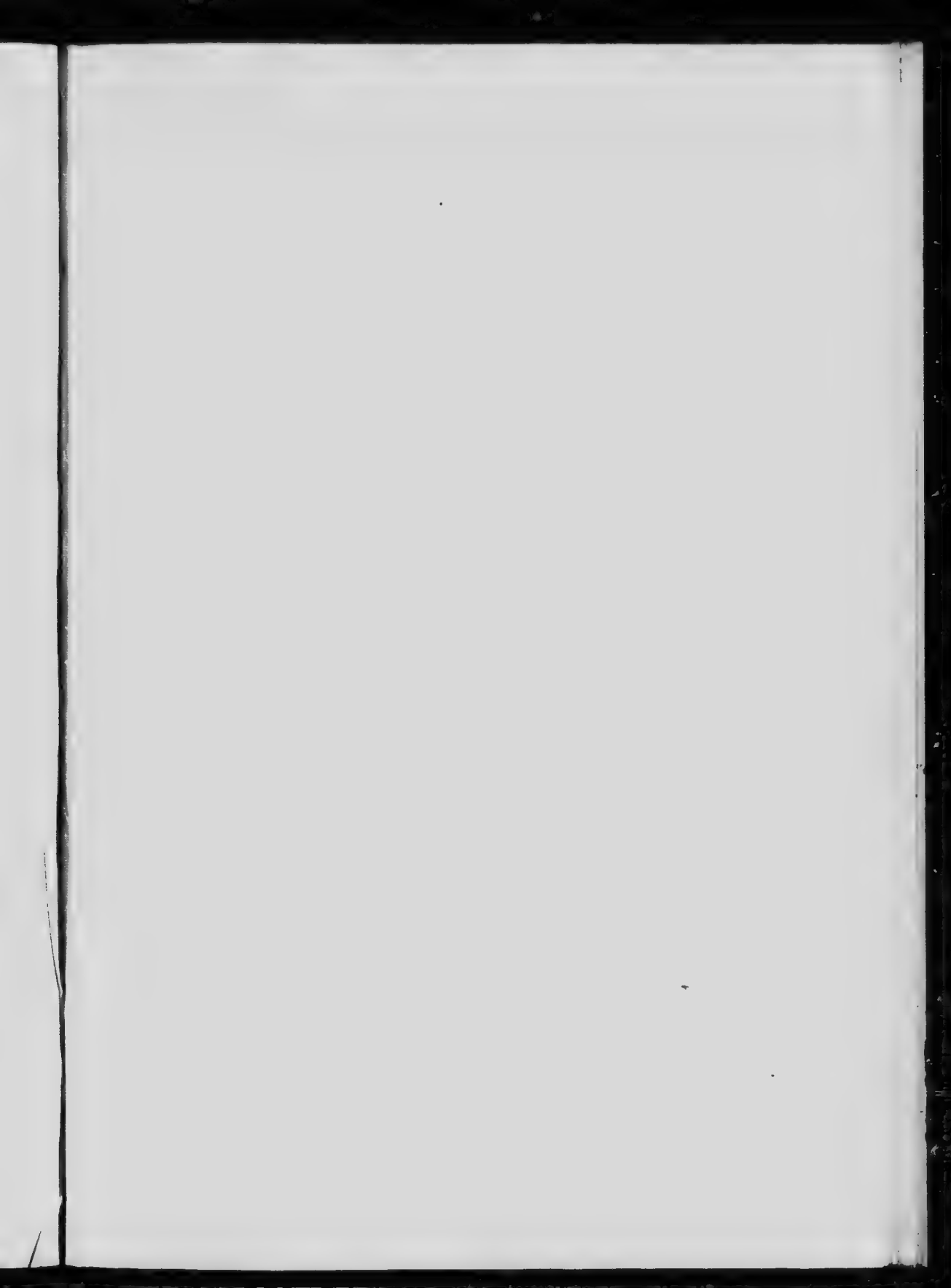
reign of Victoria is the history of great advances in art and science, and of remarkable inventions of time and labour-saving machines. Ships now cross the Atlantic ocean in less than six days, and trains travel at marvellous rates of speed. By the aid of the electric telegraph, messages are carried across oceans and continents with the speed of lightning, while the more recent invention of the telephone enables us to carry on a conversation with friends many miles away. The phonograph keeps a record of the voices of the living and the dead, while the photograph keeps fresh in our memory the features of the absent. Electricity is now extensively used as a motive power to drive machinery, to propel trains, and to furnish light for our homes, shops, and streets. Science has made wonderful progress in nearly every department of human knowledge. Geology, biology, chemistry, history, political economy, language, medicine, theology, and politics, have each and all felt the influence of the scientific spirit and its methods of discovery and investigation. The age has been particularly great in writers of history, such as Hallam, Macaulay, Grote, Green, Froude, Freeman, Gardiner, Lecky, and Carlyle. In fiction we have had Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot (Mrs. Cross), Charlotte Brontë, and a host of others only second to these great names. Tennyson, the poet Laureate, and Robert Browning, are great names in the realm of poetry, while Matthew Arnold has taught us the art of a true and lofty criticism of life and literature.

21. Conclusion.—These are a few, and only a few, of the names of English writers of the present century. So widespread has education become, and so numerous the fields of human activity, that where, a century ago, ten men distinguished themselves in art, science, or literature, a thousand now can be found.

We have followed the stream of English history down from its small beginnings in the first century to the present day. We have seen the gradual rise of parliamentary government and the steady growth of political freedom under the Plantagenets and the Lancastrians. We have seen, also, the struggle against despotism and tyranny under the Tudors and Stuarts, and the recovery of lost liberties by the Revolution of 1688. We have watched the steady increase in wealth and material prosperity under the Georges, and we have rejoiced at the success of the great moral movement in the

18th century, which aroused England from spiritual deadness, and gave her strength to free herself from the shackles of political and social corruption. We have seen England standing almost alone against the giant power of Napoleon, fighting the battles of the world's freedom, undaunted by reverses, and gloriously successful through the courage and steadfastness of her sons. Not less interesting to us has been the marvellous growth of Britain's empire in the last hundred years. Her colonies and possessions are found on every continent, and her flag floats on every sea. She is still "Mistress of the Sea," and her navy carries British goods and manufactures to every land. Her commerce is great beyond comparison, and her language and civilization are finding a sure foothold in every nation. But better than all, England's influence for truth, justice, and righteousness, is greater than ever. She still leads all peoples in the struggle against vice, ignorance, and tyranny. Her shores are still a safe refuge for the oppressed of all nations, and from her the patriots of all lands derive hope and encouragement. At no period in her history have her people been so earnest in the pursuit of great moral reforms, and in removing the wrongs of centuries of misrule, as at the present day. After nineteen centuries of strife and struggle, England stands in the fore-front of nations, fresh and vigorous, every pulse throbbing with a healthy national life, her "eyes not dim and her natural strength not abated."



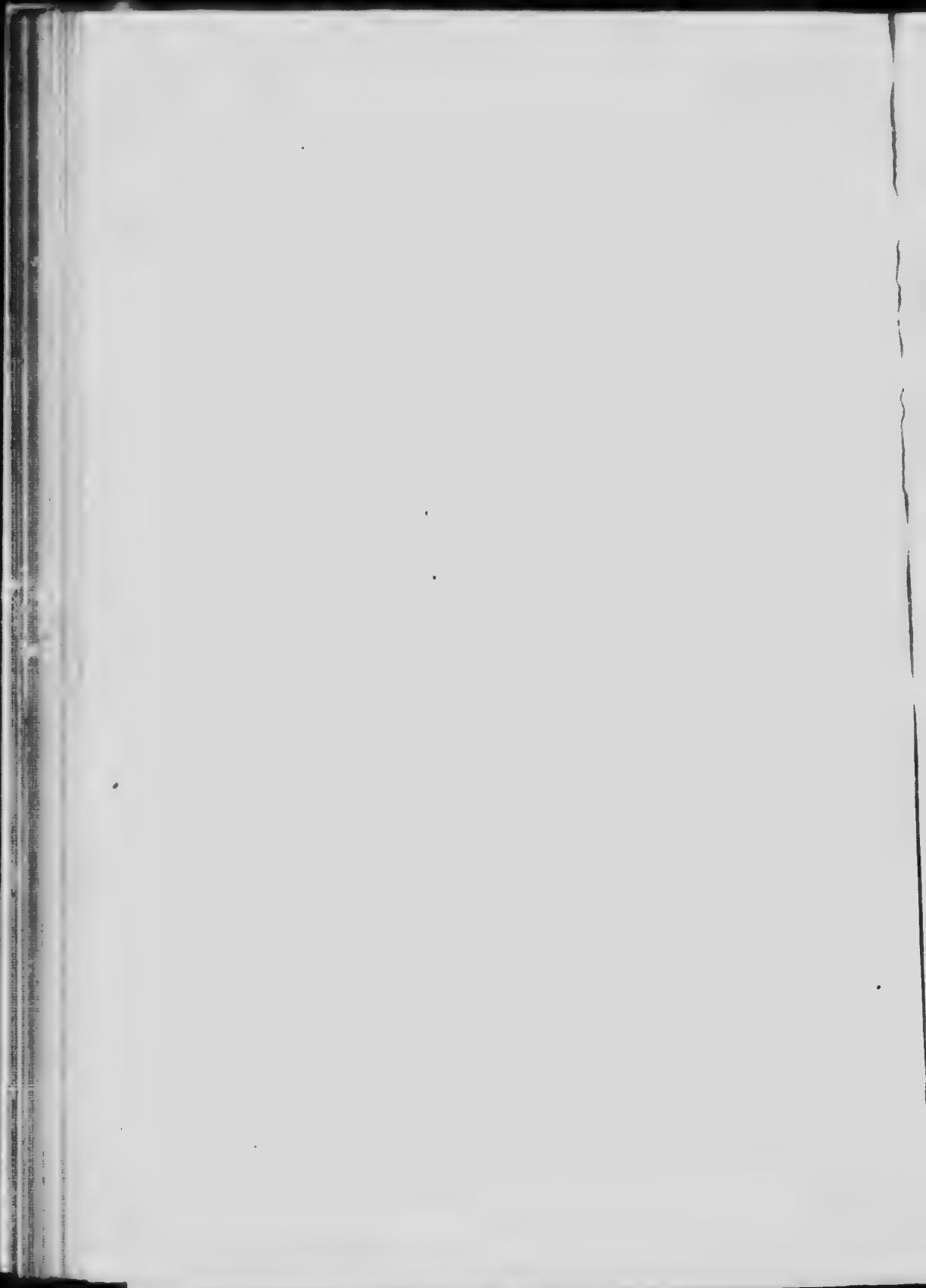




OUTLINE MAP OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

Reduced from map in
How Canada is Governed
by Sir J. G. Bourne Kt M.C.

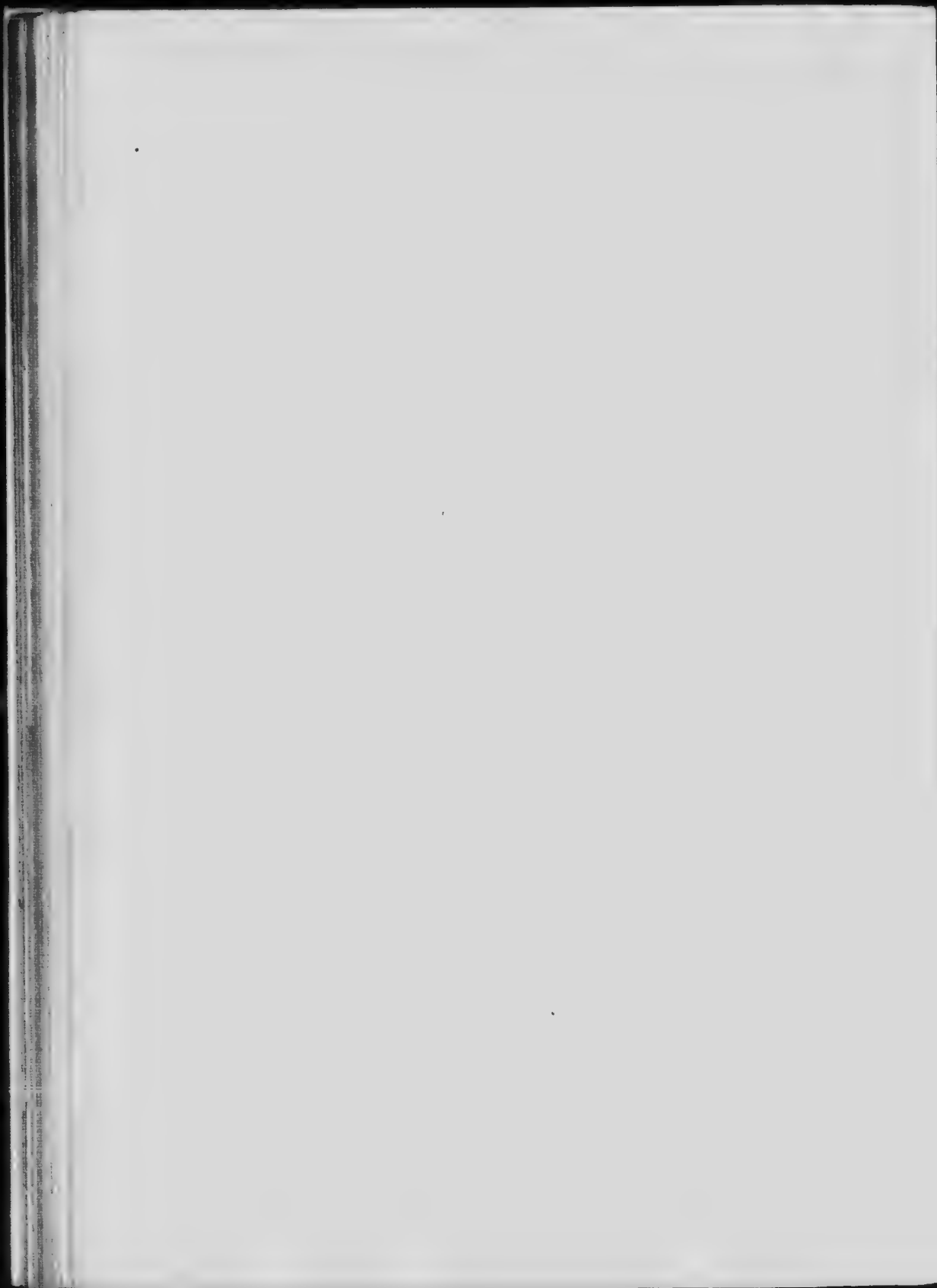




THE HISTORY OF CANADA

BY

G U. HAY, Ph.B., D.Sc.



PREFACE.

It has been the aim, in writing this brief History of Canada, to make the language as far as possible simple and natural. Instead of a compilation of facts, strung together for the sake of getting everything in, more attention has been given to describe with some degree of fulness those events which stand out boldly in our history. The more commonplace facts have not been left out, but have been woven together, thus securing interest, as well as cohesion, and avoiding that dry, formal and scrappy treatment so uninteresting to beginners. As the school life of many children is very short, it is hoped that the method of treatment in this book will give them some intelligent idea of the country as a whole, and arouse such an interest that they, as well as those who remain longer at school, will have a desire for the further study of the history of their own country.

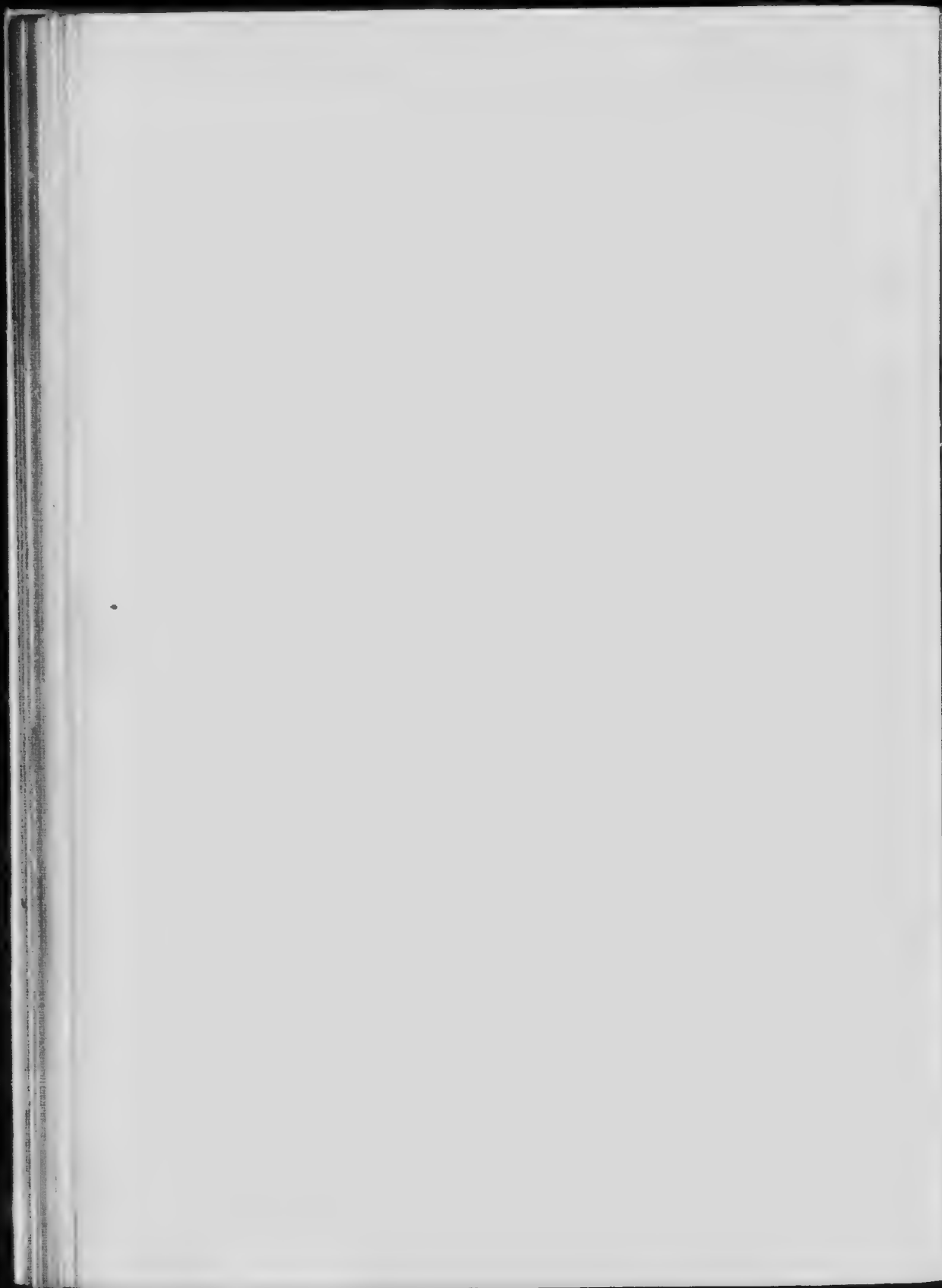
I have made use so fully of the many excellent works on Canadian history that it is difficult to acknowledge in particular my many obligations for the facts incorporated in the following pages. The most difficult task has been to weigh the importance of these facts and judge what is best to omit.

I wish to express my gratitude to those friends who have so kindly assisted me in reading proofs, and by whose help the book, it is hoped, may be found as free as possible from errors.

Teachers will find it a convenience to have the pronunciation of the more difficult proper names in parenthesis throughout the text. The outline maps will also prove valuable for reference ; but pupils should be made to see the necessity of consulting maps, and making, at every stage of their progress, outlines for themselves of all places named in the text. No plan is more excellent in impressing the facts of history on their minds.

G. U. HAY.

ST. JOHN, *June 1st, 1901.*



THE HISTORY OF CANADA.

CHAPTER I.

EXPLORATION.

Introduction.—Every boy and girl of Canada likes to read the story of our past. It is a tale of discovery and adventure, of the deeds of heroes, of fierce struggles with enemies, of bravely facing death and suffering in many forms. This record of the deeds of heroic men and brave women, who toiled and suffered to carve from the wilderness homes that are fitted to nourish a sturdy race, will help to form the life and character of the children who grow up to fill their places.

Canada stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the United States on the south to the Arctic Ocean on the north. Its area (3,315,647 square miles) is about as large as the whole of Europe or of the United States. Its coast waters, its vast lakes and noble rivers, and countless smaller lakes and streams, teem with fish; its forests abound with game, and its mines with useful and precious metals; its soil and climate are fitted to rear a hardy and vigorous people. The untold wealth of its forests, its mines, its soil, its seas, lakes and rivers, if carefully guarded and wisely used, will support prosperous and contented millions in the years to come.

Where are the boys and girls who are not proud of such a land, who are not eager to help make it their home, and to preserve it as a part of our great British Empire?

Discovery.—Look on the map of the world. Find Norway; trace from it a line to Iceland, then to Greenland, and then along the eastern coast of Canada. This was the track of those hardy Norsemen, who in their frail vessels braved the tempests of the northern seas, and founded colonies in Iceland and Greenland. Thence Leif Erikson, son of Erik the Red, the colonizer of Green-

land, sailed south, with nothing but the sun, moon and stars to guide him and his brave sailors. According to the Sagas (Norse legends), he came to Newfoundland, which he called Helluland (land of flat stones); next to Nova Scotia, which he named Markland (woodland); and, it is thought, to New England, which from the abundance of wild grapes growing there, he called Vinland (wine-land). This was about the year 1000 A.D., nearly 500 years before Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, landed at San Salvador (1492). The discoveries of the Northmen brought about no real contact between the Old World and the New. They are looked upon merely as chance visitors to our coasts. The discovery of Columbus, who seems to have known of the early Norse voyages, was followed by conquest and settlement, in which Spain took the leading part. Other nations were aroused by the discovery of a new world. In May, 1497, John Cabot, with his son Sebastian and eighteen men, left the port of Bristol, England, in one small ship, the "Matthew," to seek unknown lands to the west. The little craft of fifty tons safely braved the winds and waves of the Atlantic, and on the 24th of June first sighted land, on the east part of the island of Cape Breton. On that day began the claim of Great Britain to the North American continent. In the spring of 1498, John and Sebastian Cabot made a second voyage to the New World with a larger number of ships and men, making a second landing on the coast of Labrador; but, meeting with ice, they coasted southward as far as the point now called Cape Hatteras. Columbus supposed he had discovered the Indies, and the Cabots supposed they had found the way to distant Cathay (China). The full meaning of these discoveries did not become clear until years afterwards; and it is only in recent times that full credit has been given to the brave explorers. The men of their own times either forgot their deeds or thought there was nothing wonderful in what they had done. The Cabots, father and son, sleep in unknown graves. The small gratitude of King Henry VII. to the voyagers from England who first touched our shores is shown in the following entry, still preserved in the British Museum (mu-zē-um): "August 10th (1497), to hymne that founde the New Isle, £10." The last years of Columbus, the bold Genoese navigator, were passed in poverty and neglect. Although many places on this continent are named after him, the

name America was given in honour of Amerigo Vespucci (am-er-ee'-go ves-poot'-chee), a Florentine merchant, who touched the continent somewhere in the north-east of South America, in 1501, on his third voyage, and wrote an account of the discovery.

Jacques Cartier, the Discoverer of Canada, 1534.—The real discoverer of Canada was Jacques Cartier (zhāk' kar'-tee-ā'). The Norsemen, the Cabots, the Portuguese Captain Cortereal, the French navigator, Verrazano (ver'-ratz-ah'-no), and a few others,



VOYAGES OF CARTIER AND CHAMPLAIN.

merely touched its outlying shores ; and were driven back by the fogs of Newfoundland, or the rocky and ice-bound shores of Labrador. It must be kept in mind that all these early voyages, except the Norsemen's, were made with the object of finding a shorter passage to the Indies or Cathay, so that the riches of the far East might find their way more easily to the shores of Europe. Cartier,

sent out by Francis I., King of France, in 1534, entered the Straits of Belle Isle and discovered the gulf that separates Newfoundland from the Atlantic provinces of Canada. The rugged shores of Labrador and north-western Newfoundland did not please him. He says it "must be the land allotted by God to Cain." But once within the gulf, and summer coming on, he found the warm weather and the scenery a pleasant relief from the icebergs and cold winds of the Atlantic. He skirted the shores of western Newfoundland and portions of what are now called Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Quebec. He has left us a faithful account of the places visited and the natives whom he saw. Next year (1535) Cartier made a second voyage. Entering the gulf on the festival day of St. Laurent (Aug. 10th), he named it the Gulf of St. Lawrence. This name was also given to the river. Guided by two Indians whom he had taken to France as captives the year before, he sailed up that noble river—the first white man who had sailed on its broad waters—until he reached a great Indian village where now stands Quebec. This was Stadacona, where ruled Donnacona, a chief of the Algonquin (al-gon'-keen) Indians. Further up the river he came to another Indian village, Hochelaga (hōsh'-e-lah'-gah), inhabited by a Huron tribe. This is the site of Montreal, so named from the hill behind it, which Cartier called Mount Royal. No wonder he was impressed with the views from the heights of Quebec and Mount Royal—the great plains to the west, the great sweep of mountain and valley to the north and south, and at his feet the noble river which he vainly thought would open to France and Frenchmen the treasures of China and India. He longed to tell the king of his great discovery; and after a miserable winter spent at Quebec, in which he lost many men from cold and disease, he set sail for France, taking with him the chief, Donnacona, and several of his Indian subjects, whom he had coaxed on board his vessel. This was a base return for the kindness Cartier had received at the hands of the Indians; but it was only one small instance of the cruelty and lack of faith of those who came to America to discover, then to conquer and to settle. The story too often is one of greed and cruelty on one side, and hate and slaughter on the other.

The Indians.—The Skrellings (yelling savages) was the name

that Leif Erikson and his Norse sailors gave to the natives of our shores. These looked with fear and wonder on the dragon ships, the weapons and the white faces of the rough Northmen, and were glad to see them depart. Cartier says of the Indians of the Gulf of St. Lawrence that they were good natured and quiet and would be "easy to convert to Christianity." But this was not so with all. The fierce Iroquois (eer'-o-kwah'), who lived in what is now the State of New York, were warlike and cruel, and frequently made war on the tribes who lived north of the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes. These were the Hurons and Algonquins, the former occupying the region north and east of Lake Huron, and the latter, under various names and tribes, the country from the Atlantic Ocean towards the Rocky Mountains. Except the Eskimos (es'ke-mōs'), and the Indians of the Pacific Coast, the Algonquins made up the great mass of the Indians of Canada. The Micmacs and Maliseets, who lived in the Atlantic provinces, were branches of this family. They tilled the soil to some extent; but nearly all lived by hunting and fishing, and on wild fruits. The tribes frequently made war on one another; and the men, when not engaged in fighting, were roaming the forests, hunting and fishing, making rude weapons, or spending their time in feasting, talking, or sleeping. The women's lot was hard. On them fell all the heavy work and drudgery. In many tribes considerable skill was shown in the manufacture of snowshoes and moccasins, canoes from birch bark, and clothing from the skins of animals. Their tools and weapons were of the rudest kind—clubs, tomahawks, hatchets, arrowheads made of stone, the bow and arrow, fish-spears, hooks and lines, knives made from shells or thin slices of stone. The women were skilful in making baskets, ornamental work in quills and feathers, and cups and bowls shaped out of clay. Their houses or wigwams were built in the shape of a cone, with a framework of stakes covered with skins or bark. Often ten or twelve families lived together in long houses covered with bark. The Iroquois, Hurons, and to some extent the Algonquins, lived for mutual protection in large encampments. It is supposed that the word *kanata*, meaning an encampment or settlement such as that found by Cartier at Hochelaga, was used by him as a name for that whole district lying near. But at what time the name CANADA was applied to the whole country is uncertain.

CHAPTER II.

CONQUEST AND SETTLEMENT.

First Settlements.—In 1542, six years after his return from his second voyage, Cartier, with Roberval (rob'-er-val') as the first vice-roy of Canada, attempted to found a settlement on the St. Lawrence; but this, with further attempts for several years, ended only in failure, shipwreck and suffering. For nearly fifty years England and France took little interest in a country that promised them neither treasures nor a highway to the riches of the far East. But the true wealth of the country was little by little being found out. Hardy fishermen from Europe—their numbers increasing every year—sought Newfoundland and its banks for the fish that swarmed in these seas; traders and men loving the free wild life of the woods sought in the forests of Canada valuable fur-bearing animals. Thus was laid the foundation of two of our greatest industries—the fisheries and the fur-trade.

The nearness of Newfoundland to England led to the hopes of founding a colony on that island. Between the years 1575 and 1585, it was visited by Martin Frobisher, Sir Francis Drake, and the half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Humphrey Gilbert—names well known in England's annals of the sea. Two attempts of Gilbert to found a colony in Newfoundland (1579 and 1583) ended in disaster and death. In attempting to return to England, his little vessel foundered at sea, and he and all on board perished.

The costly furs from the Canadian forests lured the French traders. They bought these furs or pelts from the Indians, paying for them in trinkets, beads, gay-coloured cloths, and "fire-water" (brandy), and selling them at a great profit in France. Great fortunes were thus made. Frequent quarrels arose between rival traders or companies. In return for certain privileges the traders promised to provide settlers; but those who came were left to starve or to care for themselves as best they could. The king, for a certain sum of money, granted at different times to his nobles or to a company the sole right (monopoly) of the fur-trade, on condition that they would found colonies. "The Company of the One

Hundred Associates," in 1627, was given the sole right to the fur trade and the coast and inland fisheries of Canada, on condition that they would bring out four thousand colonists, help them to settle, and maintain a Roman Catholic clergy for their spiritual benefit and for the conversion of the Indians. But the chief aim of the Company was to get riches. Many of the settlers either perished from cold and hunger or returned to France. Others took up with the wild life of the Indians, became "rovers of the woods," *coureurs de bois* (koo-rer'-de-bwah'), and married among the Indians, their descendants becoming the half-breeds of later years. But there was one among those early explorers whose name stands before all others.

Champlain, Founder of Canada.—Samuel de Champlain (sham-plane'), was a man whose memory Canadians, whether of French or English birth, hold in love and respect. He faithfully served his king, and he tried to do his duty. His chief aims were to make new discoveries, improve the country, make it better known by maps and writings, and above all to Christianize the people. He often said: "To save one soul is of more importance than to found a new empire." He was stern and upright, but his justice was tempered with mercy. In his dealings with the Indians he was fair and open, and he never engaged in traffic with them.

Champlain was trained for the sea from his earliest years. His first voyage to Canada was made in 1603, when he was thirty-six years of age. He explored and mapped the St. Lawrence as far as Montreal, and published an account of his voyage on his return to France the same year. On his second voyage, in 1604, he accompanied the Sieur de Monts, (de mōng), leader of a band of traders and settlers for Acadia. In May, they sighted land near the mouth of the river La Have, touched at several places along the coast of what is now Nova Scotia, entered and explored the Bay of Fundy (see map, p. 203), which De Monts called *la Baye Française*, (lah-bāy'-frōng'-sāze'). On the 24th of June, the anniversary of that memorable day on which John Cabot made his landfall on Cape Breton, they found the mouth of a river which Champlain named St. John, in honour of the festival of that Saint. Coasting to the west, they made a settlement on an island in the St. Croix River now called Dochet's Island, a few miles above St. Andrews.

[The site of this settlement is important ; because the discovery of its ruins in 1797 made it clear that this river is "the true and ancient St. Croix," a fact disputed in settling the international boundary line.] Here the little company of explorers spent the winter, suffering many hardships from cold and scurvy, so that thirty-five out of seventy-nine died, and many of the remainder were greatly weakened. In the spring of 1605, the remnant of the company removed to Port Royal, six miles west of the present town of Annapolis. De Monts had landed here the previous summer, and was greatly charmed with the beauty and safety of the place. Here he founded a colony. Land was cleared, crops put in, and Port Royal flourished until its capture and destruction by the English under Samuel Argall, in 1613. Champlain explored the coast as far south as Cape Cod.

On his third voyage to Canada, in 1608, Champlain founded Quebec. He joined the Hurons and Algonquins and made war on the Iroquois. This made the latter the bitter foes of the French. The terrible Iroquois afterwards became the allies of the English, and for many long years—until the end of the French rule—the colonists, in the cruel slaughter wreaked upon them by these savage and revengeful enemies, reaped the fruit of Champlain's too hasty act. Champlain discovered the lake which bears his name, and explored the country around the St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers and Great Lakes. Later (in 1612), he was appointed lieutenant-governor of Canada. He aimed to improve the condition of the colony, and to make Quebec a strong fortress. He was so far successful as to defy the English fleet under Sir David Kirke, when it appeared before the city in 1628. But Quebec was captured in the following year, and Champlain was carried a prisoner to England. The English made little effort to keep their prize ; and the country was restored three years after (1632) to the French. Champlain was again appointed governor in the following year, a post which he held till his death, December 25th, 1635.

Champlain's labours in Canada, which extended over thirty years, were faithful and untiring, and they produced a lasting effect on the history and progress of the country. Six large volumes of his writings, with maps and sketches, bear witness to his industry. His courage and energy put new life into the colonists, and made

the French king and his nobles have some faith in the country. His zeal for Christianity inspired the Recollet (rek'-o-lä') and Jesuit fathers to undergo the dangers and hardships of a life in the wilderness in order to convert the savages. He gained the confidence of the Indians and proved their friend; for though he drew upon the French and their Indian allies the fury and hate of the Iroquois, it must be remembered that the Hurons and Algonquins kept faith with the French chiefly on condition that the latter would aid them in their wars against their common enemy, the Iroquois.

Acadia. Acadia (the French Acadie, meaning, in the dialect of the Micmac Indians, a place or district,) embraced what is now Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and the east of Maine. After the destruction of Port Royal by Argall, in 1613, the French made no attempt to settle the country for twenty years. The frequent wars between England and France, and the rival claims that often arose as to the ownership of this part of North America, left little chance for a colony to take root. In 1621, James I. of England granted the country to Sir William Alexander, a Scottish knight, who sent out a few of his own countrymen as settlers to Port Royal. But in 1632 Acadia was again restored to France; Isaac de Razilly (rah-zeel'-yee) was made its governor, and for several years settlement went on rapidly. Farmers, artisans and traders were brought from France—in all about forty families. These gradually mixed with the few Scottish settlers and the former French settlers in Acadia who had not returned to France or gone to Quebec; and they became the ancestors of the Acadian French who now people various parts of the Atlantic provinces. The new settlers first occupied La Have, near the mouth of the river of the same name, on the Atlantic Ocean; but afterwards removed to Port Royal, the site of which was soon changed to that of the present town of Annapolis. The site here was better suited for farming. The settlers prospered, increasing rapidly as the years went by, and extending themselves along the fertile valley of the Annapolis River and the low coast lands around the head of the Bay of Fundy, which continued for many years to be the centre of French population in Acadia. A few forts and trading posts, and gradually settlements, began to

appear at other convenient points. "The simple Acadian peasants" grew rich and multiplied. They had little care for what went on in the outside world. They were happy; and it mattered little to them whether the king of France or the king of England ruled over them.

Story of Lady La Tour.—At the mouth of the River St. John, there was a small fort and trading post. On the death of De Razilly, the governor of Acadia, in 1635, the Chevalier D'Aulnay (shev'-a-leer' dole'-nay'), succeeded him and had his headquarters at Port Royal. On the opposite side of the Bay of Fundy, Charles de la Tour held the fort of St. John. These men had been lieutenants of De Razilly. They had long been rivals and bitter foes, and now each was bent on destroying the other, although there was land and wealth enough for both. D'Aulnay had the favour of the French court; La Tour had some influence in England and in the English colony at Boston. But the greatest support of the latter came from his wife, whose brave defence of the fort at St. John, and whose unhappy fate, furnish one of the most interesting pages of early Acadian history.

After years of varying fortune for both, D'Aulnay succeeded in capturing La Tour's fort, on Easter Sunday, 1645. During all the previous winter, while La Tour was in Boston seeking in vain for help, his brave wife had defended the fort, inspiring her soldiers with her own heroic spirit. In February, she repulsed an attack of her enemy with such success that D'Aulnay was glad to escape with the loss of twenty-two killed and thirteen wounded. On the 13th of April following, D'Aulnay again attacked the fort, this time on the land side. For three days and three nights he made but slight headway against the little band within the fort, which, led by the brave woman, repelled every onset. But while the garrison were at prayers on Easter morning, a Swiss sentry, who had been bribed by D'Aulnay, treacherously allowed the enemy to approach; and before the besieged force thought that anything was wrong, D'Aulnay's soldiers were climbing over the walls of the fort. Even then the heroic Lady La Tour and her little company drove back the enemy with the loss of many killed and wounded. Anxious to save the lives of her soldiers, she too readily listened to terms of surrender proposed by D'Aulnay, which were that the lives of all

should be spared and they should be free to go wherever they pleased. But barely had he taken possession of the fort, when, enraged at finding how small a garrison had so long and so successfully kept him at bay, his cruelty and want of faith were shown. Every man of the devoted band was put to death, except one whose life was spared on condition that he should act as the hangman of his comrades. Lady La Tour was forced to witness the terrible sight with a rope around her neck. Thus was one page of the early history of Acadia made bright by the brave deeds of a heroine; the next was fouled by the cowardly act of a base and pitiless foe. The unfortunate lady, broken hearted, died three weeks after and was buried near the scene of her glory and her misfortune. Her only child, a little girl, was sent to France, where, it is supposed, she died soon after. Her husband was ruined and became for a time an outcast. His rival did not long enjoy the fruits of his victory. He was drowned a few years after (1650) in the river near Port Royal. But the sequel to this tragic story robs it of some of its romance. La Tour was put in possession of Acadia by the king of France and made its governor; and to settle the claims of D'Aulnay's widow he married her. The capture of Acadia by an English fleet in 1654 did not disturb him. He remained an English subject, and was permitted to retain his possessions. He shortly after sold his rights; but lived in the country until his death, in 1666. In the following year Acadia was restored to France. At that time it contained not more than four hundred and fifty settlers, four-fifths of whom were at Port Royal.

The Jesuit Fathers.—Equally slow was the progress made on the banks of the St. Lawrence. The colony of Canada, or New France, numbered scarcely 2,000 people (1663). The ravages of the Indians and the greed of the fur traders kept back settlement. The strong hand of Champlain had preserved some appearance of order, but after his death there seemed to be no guiding power. The five governors who succeeded him were not able to stem the tide setting against the young colony. The Jesuit priests, by their brave and unselfish efforts to convert the savages, saved the country in the days of its greatest peril. By night and by day, amid the frosts and snows of winter or the heat of summer, they went boldly among the Algonquins, the Hurons, and even the savage

Iroquois ; braving famine, fatigue and danger to carry the message of the Cross to those who had never felt its gentle influence. They never gave up their aim ; their courage never forsook them. At first they were mocked and despised, or no attention was paid to their words. Gradually their simple and pious lives began to win respect. The Hurons, more docile and intelligent than the others, accepted their teachings more freely ; and soon very many of that nation, numbering, when the French came to Canada, some 20,000 souls, were baptized and became Christians. The Iroquois hated, and did not trust, the French. The few bold missionaries who, taking their lives in their hands, sought out the encampments of these fierce people, were cruelly tortured and put to death. But these zealous and patient men seemed to accept suffering as their lot. Their duty was plain. No toil or danger disheartened them, and death had no terrors for them.

The story of the French-Indian wars is woven with the story of the missions. The Iroquois never forgave Champlain and the French for making war on them ; and they hated the Hurons and Algonquins with greater hatred than ever because they were the friends and allies of the French. There is no need here to recite the terrible tales of misery and bloodshed : how men were killed while at work in the fields ; how women and children were carried to captivity and torture ; how hundreds died from hunger and disease. The cruelty and thirst for blood of the terrible Iroquois seemed never to be satisfied. To add to the dread caused by these fierce foes, firearms had been sold to them by the Dutch settlers on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange (Albany) ; and they began to use them with such skill that they had a great advantage over their Indian enemies. Tribe after tribe of the Hurons was destroyed, the Jesuit teachers among them killed, and in the end the Hurons, as a nation, ceased to exist. The missions which had been founded among them with such toil and suffering, left only their story and an undying example among men for all ages. Such a record would adorn the annals of any nation.

A single incident may show the heroic spirit of these times, equal to that of the Greeks at Thermop'ylae, or the Romans under Horatius. The colony of Montreal, which had been founded as a mission in 1642, was threatened in 1660 with an attack by the Iroquois,

who were coming from the south and west. The colony was small and feeble. To save it, sixteen young men, led by the *Sieur des Ormeaux* (see-ur'-daze-or'-mō'), resolved to sacrifice their lives in its defence. They made their wills, confessed their sins, received the sacrament, and took a sad farewell of their friends. Their plan was to hold possession of an old fort near the Long Sault (sō) rapids on the Ottawa, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. Joined by a few Christian Hurons and Algonquins, they awaited at the rapids the attack of the Iroquois. Soon these came in their canoes, two hundred strong; and for days went on the unequal struggle. Many of the Indian allies went over to the enemy; but they found no mercy, and met the death their treachery deserved. Finally, want of rest and food told more on the heroic band than the attacks of the savages. Of the four who were left to continue the struggle, three were mortally wounded. These were put to death by fire, their savage enemies dancing and yelling around them. The fourth was taken alive and kept for torture. The story was carried to Montreal by three Indians. The little colony was saved. The blood of the heroic men was not shed in vain. The loss to the Indians of so many of their braves, and, more than that, the spirit of men who could face such odds, caused them to give up the attack and turn sullenly away from their intended prey.

CHAPTER III.

FRENCH RULE.

Canada a Crown Colony.—The government of Canada by fur-trading companies and their agents had kept back the growth of the colony. Now there was to be a change. The charter of the "One Hundred Associates" was taken from them. In 1663 Canada was placed directly under the government of the French king and became a Crown Colony. It was ruled by the "Custom of Paris"; that is, by the same laws which prevailed in France. This change was brought about chiefly by the influence of the able and zealous Abbé Laval, who had spent several years in Canada, looking into the abuses and the almost lawless condition of the colony. In future the power was to be placed in the hands of

a governor, whose duty was to carry on the wars of the colony; a bishop, to rule the church; and an intendant, to whom was entrusted all legal and business affairs. These three officers formed the executive or acting members of a council who carried out the orders of the King of France. The members of the council—at first five, afterwards twelve—were appointed by the governor and bishop. The people had no voice whatever in the making of their own laws. If they had complaints to make or disputes to be settled, they laid them before the courts. These courts were held at Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal. If the complaints or disputes were trifling they were settled by the seigneurs (saynyurs). These were holders of large tracts of land, chiefly along the St. Lawrence River, who paid the king in military service and by bringing out settlers. So rapidly did the colony improve under this new order of things that in a few years the population numbered over 4,000 souls. Settlers came, bringing with them sheep, cattle, horses, farming tools. Soldiers who were brought out to carry on the war against the Indians were afterwards led to settle on tracts of land granted to them and their officers. As there were a great many unmarried men in the colony, wives were provided for them by sending out young women from France.

Frequent quarrels arose between governor, bishop and intendant as to the rights of each; and this was to be looked for where the chief power was in the hands of three persons instead of one. Talon, the intendant, was a man who worked hard for the good of the colony. He was wise and prudent, and so far as he was able dealt justly with rich and poor alike. Bishop Laval was a man of great wisdom and influence, and devoted to the church. He founded the Seminary of Quebec, which afterwards grew into Laval University. It was the first regular school in Canada. Both Laval and Talon held their offices for a long time. It was not so with the governors. They were frequently changed. The first, De Mezy (de māz'-ee), could not agree with the bishop and was recalled, but died before the summons reached Quebec.

The second governor was De Courcelles (de-koor'-sell'); and with him came the Marquis de Tracy, as the viceroy of the whole of Canada. Under these leaders a vigorous war was undertaken

against the Iroquois. Three forts were built along the Richelieu (reesh'-e-loo') River, the usual highway by which these savages entered Canada to attack and ravage the settlements along the St. Lawrence. But the Iroquois would not risk a battle; and the French, after passing through hundreds of miles of country and burning the villages of the Indians, returned to Quebec. Fear led the Iroquois to make a peace (1666), which lasted for eighteen years. De Tracy returned to France in 1667.

The Times of Frontenac (fron'-te-nak').—The long cherished dream of the French to build up a great empire in North America came near being realized when Louis de Buade, Count de Frontenac, was sent to Canada as its governor in 1672. He was an able soldier. His courage and activity were marvellous. His brilliant career in the French army, which he entered at the age of seventeen, gave hope that he was the man who could build up the failing fortunes of France in the west. And had his tact as a leader of men been equal to his genius as a soldier, it might have been so. But his proud, fiery temper, strong self-will, and hatred of those who set up their will against his, always kept him in trouble with the council at Quebec. Laval and Talon, the men who should have worked with him, and whom he should have made his firm friends, were driven to oppose him; and the council chamber at Quebec was often the scene of petty and unseemly quarrels. The strife at one time grew so bitter that the king recalled Talon and sent out Duchesneau (du-shay'-nō) as intendant in his place.

Frontenac's great object from the first was to bring the trade of the far west to Quebec. Much of it had been diverted to the south, to Albany and New York, by the English, who were now in possession of the country from the St. Croix to the James River. During the past fifty years they had planted colonies everywhere between these bounds; and now the English population in America outnumbered the French more than ten to one. Nor is this a matter of wonder. While the English cut down forests, tilled the land and made friends with the Iroquois, the French were at war with these powerful savages, and liked better to hunt and engage in the fur trade than to till the soil. But the English, who occupied the old Dutch colony of New Netherlands—captured by the English

in 1664, and named New York—had pushed themselves northward, and, with the help of the Iroquois, were fast getting possession of the fur trade of the Great West. To regain this trade, protect Canada from the raids of the Indians, and make a base for further discovery westward, Frontenac built a strong fort at the east end of Lake Ontario, where now stands the city of Kingston. A trading post had been established here some years before, as well as at Sault Ste. Marie (mar-ee'), between Lakes Huron and Superior. Father Marquette (mar-ket') and a trader named Jolliet (zhoh'-e-ñ') had gone west until they reached the Mississippi (in latitude 42° 30'). They floated for a long distance down the river, but returned before they found its mouth, or that long wished for passage by water to China, in the existence of which men had not yet ceased to believe. It was reserved for another French explorer to set the question at rest. La Salle (lah-sal') passed down the Mississippi in 1681 to the Gulf of Mexico, claiming possession of the country on both banks for Louis XIV., King of France, and naming it Louisiana.

Frontenac's power over the Indians preserved peace for years; but quarrels at Quebec became so frequent that the king recalled him in 1682. De la Barre, his successor, thought more of getting money than of governing the colony. He made a weak attempt to chastise the Iroquois, who were again on the war-path against the French; but was glad to make peace with them and beat a hasty retreat to Quebec. He was replaced by the Marquis de Denonville (den'-ong-veel'). The latter, by a cowardly act of treachery, once more turned the rage and hatred of the Iroquois against the French. He seized a number of their chiefs, whom he invited to meet him at Fort Frontenac, kept them in chains with little or no food for several days, and then sent them as slaves to France. He followed this up by invading the Indian country, burning villages and destroying fields. The savages brooded over their wrongs in silence, until they were ready to strike. And the blow was terrible when it fell. Under the cover of darkness and a raging storm (August 4th, 1689), 1,200 Iroquois crept close to the village of Lachine (lah-sheen'), six miles from Montreal. Just before dawn, they fell upon their sleeping victims, slaughtering men, women and children, burning the dwellings, and carrying

away to torture wretched captives. Montreal looked on helplessly. For weeks its wretched inhabitants saw, with grief and rage, the country for many miles around laid waste, buildings fired and savages dancing round the blazing ruins; miserable captives tortured in sight of their own countrymen, the taunts and yells of their inhuman tormentors drowning their cries for help. At last, on the approach of winter, and with no chance of more victims to appease their fury, the savages withdrew. The forest hid them and the helpless captives who were carried to untold misery and torture; and Montreal once more breathed freely. It is thought that not less than four hundred victims perished by the "Massacre of Lachine." The French, in dismay, destroyed Fort Frontenac, left their posts on the western lakes, and sought refuge in the forts of Montreal, Three Rivers and Quebec, which were in reality all the possessions that remained to the French at this crisis.

The strong hand of Frontenac alone could save the colony, and now in his seventieth year he readily undertook the task. After making peace with the Iroquois and restoring the confidence of the Hurons and other Indian allies of the French, he prepared to strike a blow against the English for the part which he thought they had taken in the late outbreak of the Iroquois. Three war parties of the French, with their Indian allies, were fitted out to attack the English settlements to the south: one against Albany, which reached Schenectady (sken-ek'-ta-dee) instead; the second against the settlements of New Hampshire, and the third against those of Maine. All were successful. Men, women and children, thinking of no danger, were set upon and cruelly murdered, or given over to the Indians for torture, or, escaping into the forests, perished from cold and starvation.

These cruelties roused the English to action; but it may be said, to their credit, that they made no attempt to revenge themselves by the murder of innocent settlers. A fleet was sent out from Boston under Sir William Phips, which captured Port Royal and all the French forts in Acadia (1690). This part of Canada, during the late troublous years on the St. Lawrence, had been left to take care of itself, or to be plundered by the greed of fur-traders. Baron St. Castin, who married an Indian princess, lived like a feudal lord in his strong fortress at Penobscot, and grew rich by the fur trade.

Villebon (veel'-bōn'), a governor of Acadia, from his stronghold on the St. John River, incited the Indians to plunder and murder the settlers on the New England borders.

Sir William Phips, after the capture of Port Royal, sailed to Quebec, destroying on his way the French posts on the island of Newfoundland and along the lower St. Lawrence. But his force was not strong enough to take the city, and he returned to Boston. A force sent against Montreal in the same year (1690) also failed, through sickness and lack of supplies. France had now a firm hold on Canada. Frontenac was at the height of his glory. Only the Iroquois were proud and unsubdued. These he determined to crush by one last grand effort. Gathering the strength of the whole colony, he led 2,200 men into the vast forests of northern New York, amid the heats of July and August (1691). Day after day they marched on, with the greatest toil and difficulty. The aged Frontenac was carried in a chair. But the story ended as before. No foe appeared; the hidden provisions were sought out and destroyed, and the fields with their standing crops were laid waste. Frontenac returned to Quebec, and sent an account of his "victory" to the king. The treaty of Ryswick (riz'-wik), in 1697, put an end to the war for a short time. This was known in the English colonies as "King William's War," for William, Prince of Orange, was on the throne of England. In the following year the great Frontenac died at Quebec, in his 78th year.

Queen Anne's War.—Peace did not last long. In fact border raids, petty strife between rival traders, and the slaughter of unoffending settlers and burning their homes, went on nearly all the time, whether the English and French were at war in Europe or not. It scarcely seems possible to us that perhaps near the very spot where now stand peaceful and happy homes, there were scenes of terror and suffering; husbands and fathers butchered while defending their wives and children who were often carried away to torture and slow death. The smoking embers told the heart-rending story for a few days; a black ruin marked the spot for a few months or years; then the flowers bloomed. The trees grew and put forth their leaves, and the birds sang in them as before. The boys and girls who read these pages will never be called upon to witness such scenes in our country again; but it is well that they should know of the toil,

suffering and hardship of its founders, and be themselves willing to undergo, in a less degree, trials that may come to them. This is the duty of the patriot.

War again broke out between the English and French, in 1702. This was known as "Queen Anne's War," because it lasted during the whole of that monarch's reign. De Callières (kal'-e-air') had succeeded Frontenac as the governor of Canada. He made a strong treaty with the Iroquois and other Indians, and a new French settlement was founded in the west, at Detroit (1701). When the war began, the Marquis de Vaudreuil (vō'-drō'ye) became governor (1703)—a strong leader, who ruled Canada well for twenty-two years. As the English and French in Europe had enough to do to fight their own battles, the war in America was left largely to the colonists. English fishermen had been driven from the coasts of Acadia. English settlers had been murdered or driven from their farms in New England by raiding bands of French and Indians. In 1704, Col. Church was sent from Boston to Acadia with a large force to avenge these cruelties; and bitter and merciless was the revenge he took on the inhabitants, most of whom were not the real offenders. From Penobscot to Chignecto nearly every French village was burned to the ground, means of defence and livelihood destroyed, the inhabitants forced to seek shelter in the woods, and the Indians shot down whenever they came within musket range of the foe. Port Royal escaped, but was taken a few years later (1710)—this time to remain in possession of the English. The name was changed to Annapolis Royal, in honour of Queen Anne. Next year expeditions were fitted out for the capture of Quebec and Montreal, but failed again on account of being badly planned and poorly led. The treaty of Utrecht (you'-trekt), in 1713, closed the war. France gave up her claim of sovereignty over the Iroquois, Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson's Bay Territory, but kept the Island of St. John, Cape Breton, and all her possessions on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. The latter country had peace for over forty years, or as nearly as it was possible to have peace in those unquiet times. The colony was very well ruled by successive governors and intendants; but the common people had no education, and nothing to say in the making of their laws. There was little to

encourage farm life. The land had been granted by the king to the seigneurs. These portioned it out in lots to men who were willing to work it and pay them a small rent, either in money or produce. Trade, manufactures and ship-building were encouraged. The colony made and exported such products as cloth, salt, rope, staves, tar, flour, pork, tobacco, and a few other articles. Roads were opened up, and mails began to be carried. But the country west of the St. Lawrence was a wilderness, with a few trading posts here and there, and forts at Kingston, Niagara and Detroit. The French claimed the whole country west of the Alleghany Mountains, and wished to confine the English to the narrow strip along the Atlantic seaboard. They foresaw that a struggle would soon arise for the possession of North America, and began to strengthen their forts on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, and build new ones on their widely extended territory—one at Louisbourg, one on Lake Champlain, and another on Lake George, and several in the Ohio valley.

Strife in Acadia.—But if the country along the St. Lawrence was quiet, this could not be said of Acadia. The inhabitants never expected the English to remain masters of the country, and refused to take the oath of allegiance. It was urged by the French that the name Acadia stood only for the peninsula of Nova Scotia. The Acadians, if left to themselves, would no doubt have submitted to English rule; but there were French agents from Quebec continually among them and the Indians, creating disturbance. The latter, for years, in what was known as the Indian War, kept the country in constant alarm, killing, burning and carrying off victims and property. At last the Indians were taught a lesson. A large encampment near the Kennebec River was surrounded by the English in 1724. No quarter was given. Six chiefs and many of their subjects were killed. The war was at an end, and the Indians of Acadia were quiet for years.

After the giving up of Newfoundland and Acadia to the English, the French flocked to the quiet bays and fertile lands of Cape Breton (Isle Royale). This with St. John (now Prince Edward Island), and the coast of the mainland as far north as Gaspé (gas'-pay'), had been formerly granted by the King of France to Nicolas Denys. While La Tour and D'Aulnay were fighting and

bringing debt and ruin upon each other, he was busily engaged in the fur trade and fisheries. On Cape Breton the French built the fortress of Louisbourg, as strong as wood and stone could make it. Lying between Newfoundland and Acadia, and near the ocean highway to the New England colonies, it was a constant menace to the commerce of the latter.

War was again declared between England and France, in 1744; and from their vantage ground at Louisbourg the French sent a force to capture Annapolis Royal, expecting to be joined by the Acadians. But the Acadians remained quiet; and, aid arriving from Boston, the siege was raised. The English colonists at Boston then gathered a force consisting of 4,000 untrained men under Governor Shirley and William Pepperell, to capture Louisbourg. At Canso they were joined by a small English fleet under Commodore Warren. Although Louisbourg was defended by 2,000 French, it was surprised and fell almost without a blow (June 16th, 1745). A great fleet and army under the Duc d'Anville was sent out from France to recapture the stronghold; but shipwreck and disaster attended this ill-fated expedition, until, in the end, it was so weakened that it could accomplish nothing. Peace gave to the French what they could not gain by war. Louisbourg was given up to France by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (äks'-lah-shah-pel'), in 1748; an act which greatly displeased the English colonists of Massachusetts, who had sacrificed lives and money in its capture.

Halifax Founded.—But it was seen that to make Acadia an English colony something more was needed than to take and destroy forts, and carry on petty wars against French and Indians. The country must have English settlers. In June, 1749, there came to Chebucto (now Halifax) Harbour a large company of immigrants, about half of whom were disbanded officers, soldiers, and sailors of the Royal Navy, with their wives and children—more than 2,500 persons in all—under the command of Colonel Edward Cornwallis. The English Government sent supplies to maintain the settlers for a year; grants of land were given them, and they were provided with tools for farming and weapons to defend themselves against the attacks of their enemies. A flourishing colony soon arose along the fine land-locked harbour, which had long been known as a refuge for fishing vessels. It was named Halifax, in honour of Lord

Halifax, who had aided and encouraged the planting of the colony ; and Cornwallis became its first governor. Late in the summer another hundred settlers arrived ; and in August of the following year (1750) three hundred more, who founded the town of Dartmouth, on the opposite side of the harbour. In the following spring (1751), a large body of German immigrants arrived ; but as they could not speak English, and knew little of English life, most of them were moved westward and founded the town of Lunenburg (1753), on Malagash Bay, where there had been for years a small French settlement. Five years later (1758), the colonies in Nova Scotia asked for representative government, which was granted, and the first house of assembly met at Halifax.

Stirring up Strife.—In the meantime the colony had not been free from the attacks of the Indians, who were urged on by French agents. Among the latter was a missionary from Quebec, Joseph Le Loutre (loo'-tr), who for nearly twenty years worked among the Acadian settlements and the wigwams of the Indians. In his zeal for France, and his hatred of the English, he forgot his duties as a priest and helped to keep up continual alarm and strife.

By the treaty of peace between the English and French in 1715, the boundary line had not been clearly settled ; and as time went on the southern parts of what is now the province of New Brunswick, especially Westmorland county, came to be looked upon by the French as their own. To the fertile meadows north of the Missiquash river, now the boundary line between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and to the Island of St. John, went those who would not submit to English rule, and those who were persuaded by Le Loutre and others to seek new homes, where, it was held out to them, they would enjoy their rights as French subjects.

Struggle for Mastery.—On the Isthmus of Chignecto, along the little river Missiquash, there took place during the next few years (1750-55) a struggle for mastery between the French and English. On the northern side of this river, on a hill overlooking the entire country, was built the French fort Beauséjour (bō'-say-zhoor') by La Corne, whom the governor of Canada had sent with a body of troops to Chignecto. About two miles south, and across the Missiquash, lay the prosperous Acadian village, Beaubassin. Major

Lawrence was sent from Halifax to destroy the fort. But his force was too small, and he withdrew. On the return of the English, the inhabitants of the village were forced by Le Loutre to burn their houses and take refuge around the walls of the fort, which were slowly rising. The English built Fort Lawrence between the ruins of the village and the Missiquash river. Major Lawrence became Governor Lawrence, and Colonel Monekton took command of the English forces, which were increased by a large body of men sent from Boston. After a vigorous siege the French fort, defended by Vergor, who had taken the place of La Corne, was taken (June 16th, 1755). Beauséjour became Fort Cumberland. Le Loutre escaped and fled to Quebec, but he was captured by the English on his way to France, and kept a prisoner until the end of the war.

Braddock's Defeat.—While the siege of Beauséjour was drawing to a close, a stirring scene was being enacted in the west. The French had determined to drive out the English, who were making their way west into the Ohio valley. The Marquis Duquesne (du-kāne') had been appointed governor of Canada in 1752, and he pressed the English with such vigour and success that they were obliged to retire. Although it was a time of peace in Europe between England and France, it was not so in America, as the events in Acadia have shown. Major-General Braddock, a brave but headstrong leader, was sent out from England, in 1755, with a force of over 2,000 men to capture Fort Duquesne in the Ohio valley. On the 9th of July, as he was entering a defile in the forest within a few miles of the fort, the French and Indians from behind the trees poured a murderous fire into the English ranks, which soon fell into confusion. The soldiers, unused to that kind of warfare, fell easy victims to the deadly aim of their hidden foes. Braddock fell mortally wounded, and soon nearly eight hundred of his men lay dead and wounded. The entire army must have perished but for the presence of a small force of Virginian colonists and Indians, led by Colonel George Washington, who adopted the same style of fighting as their foes and thus covered the retreat of the English. This disaster left the French for a while in possession of the Ohio valley. Braddock's defeat was offset, in a measure, by a victory gained over the French at Lake George by General Johnson, at the head of a body of colonials and Mohawk Indians.

Exile of the Acadians.—A tragic event closed the memorable year 1755. It might be supposed, or at least hoped, that the fall of Fort Beauséjour and the departure of their worst enemy, Le Loutre, would show the Acadians the folly of further resistance to the English. But the defeat of Braddock in the Ohio valley, and the bold and defiant attitude of the French at Quebec and Louisbourg, encouraged them to hope that Acadia would soon be restored to France. During the summer of 1755, delegates were summoned from the centres of population to Halifax to take the oath of allegiance as laid down by the English. But they refused, and preparations were at once made to remove the Acadians from the peninsula of Nova Scotia. The stern resolve of Governor Lawrence was carried out. Late in August, the English ships, commanded by Colonel Winslow, of Massachusetts, reached Minas Basin with troops. The unfortunate people were summoned from the harvest fields, their dwellings burned, and themselves, with such movable property as they could take with them, forced on board the vessels and conveyed to the English colonies to the south. Some found their way even as far as Louisiana and the West Indies. In the confusion of embarkation, wives were occasionally separated from husbands, and fathers and mothers from children. Never was a British soldier sent on a more cruel errand; never has a sadder tale of suffering and misery been recorded. The story of Raynal and Longfellow's poem "Evangeline," give the details of the dark picture—coloured in one case by race hatred, in the other by the poet's fancy. The reality must have been full enough of woe and bitterness.

Between 7,000 and 8,000 persons were removed. Hundreds escaped into the forests and found their way to the St. John River and to the bays and rivers along the Gulf of St. Lawrence and to the Island of St. John. Many of those sent to the English colonies south after a time found their way back and took up their abode in various parts of Nova Scotia, for the most part in places bordering on the open sea—in what are now the counties of Digby, Yarmouth, Antigonish, and on the island of Cape Breton. To settle in their old homes on the Annapolis, at Minas and Chignecto, was denied them.

We could wish that it were not possible to write this sad story, a story that would draw pity from the hardest heart. But we must

remember there is another side to the picture. War is cruel enough at any time ; and these people lived in times when hate and strife and burnings were too common. It was natural for them to hear with joy the tidings of French victory, to aid and be spies for their own countrymen, and even to join in battle when they could safely do so, and when a leader in the sacred garb of a priest taught them it was their duty. For these reasons it was just as natural for the English to regard them as more dangerous than open enemies. The English, though the ruling power in Acadia, were much weaker in numbers than the French, and felt that their own safety—even their lives—depended on having at least a friendly people on lands which had become theirs by a solemn treaty.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CONQUEST OF CANADA.

Bad Condition of Affairs.—And now took place the final struggle for the mastery of a continent. The "Seven Years' War" between England and France began in 1756, and at its close France gave up Canada and the vast territory in North America which she had claimed by right of discovery. The greed of adventurers and fur traders in the early history of Canada had been succeeded in later years by rapacity and disorder in the government at Quebec. The salaries given to officials by the French government were so small that all kinds of dishonesty and fraud were used to gain wealth. The intendant, Bigot (*bee'-gō*), who was appointed in 1748, set the example which those under him were not slow to follow ; and the people, the soldiers and even the Indians were victims of the greed of those in power.

During the first two years of the war in America, English affairs were so badly managed that disaster and defeat succeeded each other with startling rapidity. The Earl of Loudon and General Abercrombie, who were appointed leaders, were totally unfit for the position. On the other hand, the French general, the Marquis de Montcalm, was a brave and accomplished soldier. He conducted the war against the English in west and northern New York with great skill and success, stained, in many instances, by the massacre

of men, women and children, the work of his Indian allies, which he tried in vain to prevent.

A Change for the Better.—The ill success of the British arms both in America and Europe led to a change of government. The famous William Pitt, England's "Great Commoner," undertook the conduct of the war. He soon improved the condition of the army in America, and appointed those as leaders in whom he and the soldiers had confidence. Campaigns were planned, and every means taken to insure success. General Amherst was appointed commander-in-chief, and under him were the brave Wolfe and other brilliant officers. Admiral Boscawen commanded the fleet. The first place to fall (1758) was Louisbourg, the "Key of the St. Lawrence." This great fortress was in a much better condition to stand a siege than in 1745. Fourteen ships of war, carrying 600 guns and manned by 3,000 men, lay in the harbour. The town was defended by a strong garrison, and was well supplied with provisions and military stores. But the superior armament and forces of the English, the genius of Boscawen and Amherst, and the ardour of the gallant Wolfe bore down all opposition. The garrison of 5,000 men surrendered after a siege of seven weeks. The event was celebrated with great rejoicing in England and her colonies. After the capture of Louisbourg, Col. Monckton reduced the French forts on the St. John River; and the Island of St. John (Prince Edward), with other posts in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, was taken by the English. The same year the English again met a reverse in New York, where Gen. Abercrombie was defeated by Montcalm, with a loss of 2,000 men, including the gallant Lord Howe, in an attack on Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain. Many Scottish Highlanders, who for the first time fought in the wars of Britain, were killed. But the English attacked and destroyed Fort Frontenac. Fort Duquesne, the scene of Braddock's defeat, was taken, and its name changed to Fort Pitt. The city of Pittsburg now stands on the site of the fort.

Events of 1759.—Pitt's great scheme for completing the conquest of Canada, and thus bringing all North America under the British flag, was now to be realized. As soon as the spring of 1759 opened, three large war parties were on foot: General Amherst advanced against the forts on Lake Champlain; Generals Prideaux (pré-dô) and Sir William Johnson attacked Fort Niagara; while General

Wolfe proceeded against Quebec. In July, Amherst captured forts Crown Point and Ticonderoga after some brisk fighting, the French retiring to Montreal. During the same month General Prideaux was killed in the siege of Niagara, but the fort was taken by Sir William Johnson. It was intended that these forces should advance against Montreal, and, if necessary, assist Wolfe in the capture of Quebec; but Amherst spent the remainder of the season in strengthening the forts on Lake Champlain.

Wolfe and Montcalm.—In the meantime, General Wolfe had left Louisbourg, and, joined by a fleet sent out from England under Admiral Saunders, appeared before Quebec. On June 27th, he landed his forces, between 8,000 and 9,000 men, on the island of Orleans, a few miles below the frowning citadel of Quebec. Then began the struggle for the possession of that famous stronghold. From his fortress the brave Montcalm, wary and alert, watched every movement of the foe. Within and around Quebec was an army of 14,000 men; the fortifications bristled with artillery; and the walls of the city and the earthworks, thrown up for miles on the northern bank of the St. Lawrence, between the St. Charles and Montmorency, had been strengthened in every possible way. Montcalm had performed the part of an able and skilful leader. He saw that his weakness was in his army, which consisted largely of Canadian militia, ill fed, badly clothed, badly paid, the results of the cheating and fraud of Bigot and his officials. He saw that these would be no match for the soldiers of Wolfe; and he kept within his fortress, knowing that if he could keep the English at bay for a few months, the ice in the St. Lawrence and the storm of winter would do their work.

Wolfe had under him such leaders as Monckton, Townshend and Murray; and an army who adored him, and whom he proudly called "the best in the world." He was a host in himself. Entering the army at the age of fifteen, he had won fame and promotion on many a hard-fought field, until now, a major-general, at the age of thirty-three, he stood before the strongest fortress in the New World, which had repeatedly defied the attacks of the English, and opposed to the cautious and brilliant Montcalm, the ablest general that France had ever sent to America.

Siege of Quebec.—Wolfe, weakened by a disease that pro-

mised a fatal ending, did not shrink from the task before him. Batteries were erected on the heights of Levis (lev'-ee'), opposite Quebec, and guns played continually on the city and shattered its walls. But the French, secure behind their earthworks, defied every attempt of Wolfe to land troops. The British fleet could afford but little assistance. Five weeks after his arrival before Quebec, Wolfe made an attack on the French position from his headquarters below the Montmorency river, but was compelled to



THE SIEGE OF QUEBEC, 1759.

withdraw with a loss of nearly 500 men. This reverse threw the general into a fever ; and as he lay on his sick bed during the month of August, with little or no progress being made in the siege, a plan was proposed, it is said, by one of his staff, for the capture of the city. This was to effect a landing on the north side of the river, three miles above Quebec, and, by a narrow path that had been found out, climb the steep bank to the level plain west of the city. During the days of early September, every precaution was taken to keep the plan a secret and insure its success.

An Anxious Night.—On the night of the 12th September, Wolfe, still suffering from the weakness in which the fever had left

him, carried out the daring plan, the details of which he had been carefully preparing. For days before, Montcalm had watched the massing of British soldiers at points up the river; but General Bougainville (boo'-gan-veel'), with a force of nearly 2,000 men, was guarding the river as far as Cap Rouge (kap' roozh'), seven miles above the city, and he felt no uneasiness. His attention was diverted by the vigorous cannonade kept up by the fleet and from the heights of Levis, and by the attempt to land troops at Beauport Shoals, close to the fortress of Quebec. Aided by the darkness of the night, Wolfe and his men dropped silently down the river with the current, until they reached the little nook, now known as Wolfe's Cove. The challenges of the French sentries along the river, who mistook them for men bringing provisions from Montreal, were cleverly answered from one of the front boats by a young officer who spoke French readily. The guards at the top of the path on the heights were overpowered and secured before they could give the alarm. Company after company silently and steadily climbed up the path during the early hours of the morning of that day which was to prove the most eventful in Canadian history; while the roar of English cannon in front of Quebec kept the attention of the unsuspecting Montcalm. When day dawned, Wolfe with about 4,000 men stood in battle order on the Plains of Abraham.

Battle of the Plains of Abraham. — Montcalm accepted the gage of battle thrown down by his dauntless rival, and hurried out from the city with a force much larger than that under Wolfe. The armies drew near each other, the French firing as they advanced. Wolfe ordered his men to reserve their fire until within forty yards, when they poured such destructive volleys into the ranks of the French that they broke and retreated. Wolfe was wounded in the wrist in the beginning of the action, and soon after received a fatal wound in the breast while leading his Grenadiers to the charge. He was just able to hear the tidings that the French ran, which came a few minutes later, when he exclaimed—"Then God be praised! I die happy." Then the spirit of the gallant soldier passed from the frail body. How fitting to such a death are the words of Gray's *Elegy*, which he had recited while floating down the river the night before:

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

The brave Montcalm, trying in vain to rally his beaten soldiers, received his death wound, and died on the following day (September 14th). He was buried beneath the floor of the Ursuline Convent, at Quebec; and it is worthy of note that his grave was partly formed by the hole made by the bursting of a shell during the siege. The remains of Wolfe were taken to England and buried in Westminster Abbey. A monument, overlooking the field of battle, bears this testimony to the fallen leaders, victor and vanquished: "Valour gave a common death, history a common fame, and posterity a common monument."

After the Battle.—Five days after the battle Quebec surrendered (Sept. 18th, 1759). Next spring, General Lévis, who had assumed command of the French forces, advanced from Montreal with 10,000 troops to retake the city. General Murray, who had succeeded Wolfe as commander at Quebec, met him to the west of the Plains of Abraham with an army of 3,000 men, but was defeated and forced to take refuge within the walls of the city, where he was closely besieged by the French. A British fleet brought relief. In July of this year (1760), a French fleet coming to aid Quebec was attacked by a British fleet in the Bay of Chaleur. The French vessels, driven up the Restigouche to Petit Roche (pet'-ty rôsh'), nearly opposite where Campbellton now stands, were captured or destroyed. This was the last battle of the war.

Interest now centred around Montreal, to which city the combined forces of Amherst and Johnson were now advancing. Murray went from Quebec to join them. Soon a force of 16,000 British troops invested Montreal, which surrendered on the 8th September, 1760. By the Treaty of Paris, signed February 10th, 1763, Canada was given up to Great Britain. All that France retained of the vast territory which she had claimed in America were the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the Newfoundland coast.

CHAPTER V.

THE FAR WEST.

Early Discovery.—Our story thus far has been chiefly of Acadia and the St. Lawrence valley; and rightly so, for here took place those stirring scenes which make the early history of our country

so full of interest. But the provinces by the sea, and those by the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, do not make up the Canada which our boys and girls should know about, and which they should learn to think of as *their* country. There is the Great West, with its boundless fertile prairies, the lofty summits of the Rockies, and that rich belt of country between them and the Pacific. Let us take a brief glance at the early history of our Far West.

There are stories that the Chinese and Japanese in very early ages found their way across the Pacific and touched the western shores of North America. No historical records support these statements, and no attention therefore can be given to them here. After the discovery of America by Columbus, the Spaniards found their way round Cape Horn and across the Isthmus of Panama to the Pacific Ocean. Little by little they followed the coast northward. Then came Sir Francis Drake (1578-79), who reached the forty-eighth parallel of latitude—perhaps further. In 1592, Juan de Fuca, a Greek navigator in the Spanish service, discovered the strait which bears his name, and which now forms the western limit of the boundary between Canada and the United States. In 1778, Capt. Cook, sent out by the British Government, explored the coast of British Columbia as far north as the passage between Asia and North America, which he named Bering Straits, in honour of the Danish navigator who in 1748 sailed along that coast while in the service of Russia. The valuable cargo of furs, and the stories of the wealth of the country which Cook's sailors brought to England, led to further discoveries and trading voyages. In 1780, a British fur station was established at Nootka Sound, on the west coast of Vancouver Island, named after Captain George Vancouver, who made a complete survey of the Island (1792-94) for the British Government. This station was seized by the Spaniards in 1789, on the ground that it was Spanish territory, but was restored in 1795, with full payment of damages. Trading was continued by the British, but no settlement was attempted until many years after.

Hudson's Bay Company.—Hudson's Bay, the great inland sea of British North America, was discovered by Henry Hudson, an Englishman. He made several voyages in search of the Northwest Passage, on one of which (1609), while in the employ of the

Dutch India Company, he discovered Hudson River, which led to the founding of the colony of New Netherlands by the Dutch, a few years later. In 1610, in an English ship, he sailed through the strait and into the bay both of which now bear his name. He wintered in the bay, suffering great hardships. In the spring his sailors mutinied, and set Hudson and his son adrift in an open boat. Neither was heard of afterwards. The French claimed this territory as a part of Canada, and it was named in the treaty which restored Canada to France in the reign of Charles I. (1632). But this did not prevent Charles II., who was little bound by treaties or promises, from granting a charter to the Hudson's Bay Company, giving possession and a monopoly of the fur trade of all the lands (Prince Rupert's Land) drained by the rivers which flow into the bay. Several weak attempts were made by the French to drive out the English; but in 1713 the country was given over to the English by the Treaty of Utrecht. The great Hudson's Bay Company held full sway over the larger portion of British North America for 200 years, until in 1870 all its rights were made over to the Dominion of Canada.

The Company had full powers to govern the great extent of country it claimed, and to make war on the Indians; but these were managed so well that they gave no trouble and became the profitable servants of their employers. Several rival fur companies were formed in time, the greatest being the Northwest Fur Company, with headquarters at Montreal. In the office of the latter company was a young Scotsman named Alexander Mackenzie. For eight years he was stationed at one of the forts on Lake Athabasca, where he formed plans of discovery in the great wilderness beyond. In 1789, he started on a journey northward with four canoes, and a party of twelve bold spirits like himself. For six weeks he threaded the vast network of rivers and lakes to the north, and came to the Arctic Ocean through the great river which bears his name. Three years after he made a similar journey over the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, returning as before to the starting point on Lake Athabasca. Mackenzie was the first explorer to reach the Arctic and the Pacific by an overland journey from the east. In the years following, other journeys of discovery were made by bold explorers, opening up, through

the great wilderness to the far west, waterways and paths by which, in after years, settlers gradually found their way.

Not only did the Hudson's Bay Company absorb all rival fur companies in the great north and west; it even extended its trade to British Columbia, and at one time leased the fur-trading privileges of Alaska, which country had been occupied in the seventeenth century by Russians. Thus the whole northern part of the continent was at one time in possession of a great private company whose aims were to become rich by the fur trade and to discourage the settlement of the country.

CHAPTER VI.

BEGINNING OF ENGLISH RULE.

After the Fall of Quebec.—When Canada came under British rule the French population along the St. Lawrence valley was about 65,000 persons, with 10,000 or 15,000 more scattered through Acadia and the west. A few chose to return to France rather than submit to English rule; but the mass of the people, or habitants, soon found that the change was for their good. They sold the products of their farms to the English, who paid them in coin. Many had been compelled to fight in time of war without pay. They were kept poor by the greed and fraud of the officials, whose sole aim was to enrich themselves. These had kept for themselves the good money that found its way from France into Canada, and paid the people in worthless paper currency, which the French King afterwards refused to honour. Now the people had no enemies to fear; they no longer had to serve in time of war; they could employ themselves in tilling their farms and in the arts of peace. They were allowed to keep the lands on which they were settled, enjoy their own religion, and have all the rights of British subjects. The worst enemies of the French Canadians had been men like Bigot, who on their return to France were punished by the government for their crimes.

The Canadians were put under military rule (that is, rule by a general with a council of his officers to assist him), until it could be decided what was the best form of government to establish. This did not differ much from the rule to which they had always been ac-

customed, as they never had had any voice in governing the country or in making laws. Besides, their new English governors were men who, though firm in punishing crimes, made their rule as mild as possible ; and this, for a time at least, led to no strife and to but few complaints.

General Murray (afterwards governor-general of Canada) was appointed chief over the district of Quebec ; General Gage over Montreal ; and Colonel Burton over Three Rivers. By the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, English forms of law were introduced into Canada ; but the French, who neither understood the laws nor the language of England, did not look with favour on the change.

Indian Plot Against the English.— During the year 1763, Pontiac, a noted Indian chief who had formed a deep and well-laid scheme to drive the English from the west, nearly succeeded in the attempt.

The Indians had always liked the French. The free, easy manners of the latter, the ready way in which they adapted themselves to a wild, unrestrained life in the woods and to savage customs, and the abundance of gaudy presents they gave to gratify the Indian taste for finery, made them friends. The English, on the other hand, had never been the friends of the natives, except among the Iroquois. They were rougher in their manner, did not so well understand the Indian character, and did not always respect the rights of the red man in bartering for furs and lands.

Pontiac is believed to have taken part against Braddock, whose easy defeat by Indian methods of warfare, in 1755, may have given rise to his hope of finally destroying the English, or at least pushing them back from the west. He belonged to the Ottawa tribe, which was a part of the great Algonquin race ; and nearly all the Indians from the Ottawa to the lower Mississippi joined him, including one tribe of the Hurons (the Wyandots) and one tribe of the Iroquois (the Senecas). His skill and activity were wonderful. He relied upon taking all the frontier posts between the Niagara and the Ohio by stratagem and surprise, as they were separated from each other by wide distances, and were in general poorly garrisoned. Of the ten forts attacked in May, 1763, seven were taken, and the garrisons murdered or dispersed. The three

others—Niagara, Pitt, and Detroit—were stronger. The last named had timely notice of the attack. The Indians, led by Pontiac himself, besieged this place for five months without success. They were supplied by the French inhabitants in the neighbourhood with food, for which Pontiac gave notes in payment, written on birch bark. These he afterwards redeemed. The siege of Fort Pitt was even more remarkable, and lasted from May, 1763, until the place was relieved, in 1764. During the siege a British armed vessel was surrounded by a fleet of canoes and captured. The Indian rising was put down in 1764; and a few years later Pontiac was killed by another Indian in a drunken brawl.

After the Treaty of Paris.—From 1763 to 1774 Canada was in an unsettled condition, owing to the difficulty in choosing laws that would apply justly to English and French alike. The “new subjects,” as the French Canadians were called, had been promised the rights and privileges of British subjects; but, being Roman Catholics, they could not hold, under the English law at that time, any public office. The “old subjects,” as the English inhabitants were called, held all public offices; and this did not please the French, who formed much the larger part of the population. The great mass of the French Canadians, having little or no education, could not understand the English language and knew nothing about the English laws. General Murray, and Sir Guy Carleton, who succeeded him in 1766, made every attempt to have laws that would deal justly with the widely different aims and interests of both old and new subjects. But nobody was pleased; the French did not like the system of trial by jury; the English did not like the old way of holding land and settling disputes about property; and there were other changes that led to great confusion and some ill feeling.

Two good features of the new British rule in Canada are worthy of mention: A colony of soldiers and traders was quickly replaced by farmers, especially in those fertile districts west of Montreal, and in what are now known as the Eastern Townships; and the lands and hunting grounds of the Indians were preserved to them by royal edict. This just treatment of the Indians, with the kindness shown to them in the many years of French rule before, have borne good fruit in later years of Canadian history. The

people have lived in peace and friendship with the natives within our borders ; while the English-speaking race to the south of us, pursuing a less just and generous course, have had many cruel and expensive Indian wars.

The Quebec Act.—In 1774, the Quebec Act was passed, chiefly through the exertions of Sir Guy Carleton, the governor. It laid down the limits of the province of Quebec, which was to extend from the watershed of Hudson's Bay on the north to the Ohio river on the south, and from the Mississippi on the west to the frontiers of the New York and Pennsylvania settlements on the east. There were also included within the province of Quebec, Labrador, Anticosti and the Magdalen Islands. The act also gave to the French equal political and religious rights with the English ; the Roman Catholic clergy had the right to collect the usual tithes or dues from their own people ; the French law was to be used in all civil cases and the English law in all criminal cases ; the governor's council, to be appointed by the Crown, was to consist of not less than seventeen and not more than twenty-three members, of whom the majority was to be English ; and both the French and English language might be used in courts and political assemblies.

This act pleased the French, but not the English. The colonists to the south, especially those on the borders of the Ohio valley, were angry because of the privileges given to French and Roman Catholics. This, coupled with the demand of the British government that the colonies should be taxed to bear their share of the expenses of the late wars, soon led to their revolt.

Growth of the Atlantic Provinces.—We have seen that an assembly had been called at Halifax, in 1758, the year that saw the fall of Louisbourg. This assembly, composed of twenty-two members selected by the colonists, was the first parliament called in Canada. Governor Lawrence, who had summoned it against his own wishes, reported in his letters to England that the members did their work well.

The removal of the Acadians and the fall of Louisbourg had left the colony free from the dangers of war ; and the promise of grants of lands led to the coming of many settlers from the New England colonies to Nova Scotia (which then included New Brunswick).

Many of these occupied the lands which had recently been held by the Acadians, from Annapolis to the low lands around Chignecto. Others settled at various points between Halifax and Yarmouth. Some were given lands on the St. John River, the few French forts there having been destroyed and the inhabitants driven away after the removal of the Acadians from their lands in Nova Scotia. The chief settlement north of the Bay of Fundy was that of Mauderville, consisting of about 400 persons from Massachusetts. The country bordering on the St. John River, including by far the greater part of what is now the province of New Brunswick, was erected into a county, called Sunbury, in the year 1765, with the privilege of sending two members to the Assembly at Halifax.

During the ten years that followed the fall of Louisbourg, not less than 7,000 settlers had come from New England; and at the end of that time rather more than half the population of Nova Scotia was made up of New Englanders, who were attracted by grants of lands and the promise that full religious and political liberty should be given them. There were other settlements made at this time: a small band from Pennsylvania came to what is now Pictou county, increased a little later by immigrants from the Highlands of Scotland; and settlements were made on the St. John and Petitcodiac Rivers, on the Miramichi, and at Sackville and Bathurst. The first settlers at Pictou and on the Petitcodiac were of German descent.

At the time of the fall of Louisbourg the population of the Island of St. John was not less than 4,000 persons. Settlement on this island in early times had been slow. After Acadia had been given up to the English, a few who were not contented to live under British rule found their way to the island. The fall of Beauséjour and the exile of the Acadians brought great numbers to its shores, and several prosperous settlements were founded, especially at Port La Joye (Charlottetown), and at other places convenient of access and where the land was found to be fertile. It was chiefly from the Island of St. John that the garrison at Louisbourg received its supplies of food. After the fall of that great stronghold, the population of the island dwindled to a few hundred persons. The British on coming into possession portioned out the island into sixty-seven lots, granting the lands to those who had done some public service to the government, on condition that they would bring

out settlers. But only a few did so ; and for many years the island made little progress. It was divided from Nova Scotia, in 1769, and a separate government given to it at a time when not more than half a dozen owners of lots lived on the island, and when the whole population was not over 150 families.

Newfoundland.—The history of the Atlantic provinces of Canada would not be complete without some mention of Newfoundland ; for though this island does not yet (1901) form a part of the Dominion, it is hoped that it will be one of the Canadian provinces in a very few years. As it lies directly in the path of vessels sailing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, its shores were often visited in the early voyages made to this continent. The Cabots discovered Newfoundland, although the "Prima Vista" of their first voyage was no doubt the east part of Cape Breton, as has been already stated.

The natives of Newfoundland (the Skrellings of the Northmen ; the Red Indians of later times) were a branch of the Algonquin family who probably found their way to the island from Labrador or Cape Breton. Their habits and mode of life were much the same as those of the Indians of eastern Canada. Not one is to be found on the island at the present day. The cruel "pale-faces" drove them from the coast to the interior. Slaughter and famine completed the work of destruction ; and now the name, Red Indian Lake—even yet in the midst of a great wilderness—tells the story of the spot where they at last gathered to famish and to die.

Mention has been made of the fishermen who, year after year from its discovery, found their way in ever increasing numbers to Newfoundland ; and of the unfortunate attempt of Sir Humphrey Gilbert to found a colony. For many years the island was only a resort of fishermen who did not brave the rigours of its winter climate, but returned to their own homes at the close of each season. Gradually small settlements began to be formed on the east coast. In 1632, Lord Baltimore planted a colony of Irish in the peninsula of Avalon. Sir David Kirke was given a grant of the whole island by Charles I., in 1638. He ruled its affairs well, and settlement went on more rapidly. In 1635, the French obtained permission to dry fish on the shores of Newfoundland.

A few years later they founded a colony at Placentia, and gradually becoming bolder, they attempted the conquest of the whole island. At the close of the seventeenth century they had succeeded so well that all the English settlements had been destroyed except two, Carbonear and Bonavista. But the treaty of Utrecht again gave the English possession of the whole island. Although Newfoundland had been known to Europe for 200 years, the resident population was now only about 2,500. The same selfish reasons that led the fur-traders to discourage settlement in Canada, led the fish merchants who visited Newfoundland to look upon the shores and harbours as their own, to be used for the purpose of curing their fish; or, as one of them expressed it, "that Newfoundland should always be considered as a great English ship, moored near the Banks, during the fishing season, for the convenience of English fishermen." These merchants were men of wealth and power; and the government looked on without coming to the aid of the settlers, who were often driven from their homes and cruelly treated by these grants. After a time, by the efforts of some humane persons, the British Government came to realize the injury that was being done. The wrongs of the settlers began, in some measure to be redressed; and the island was recognized as a British colony (1729). But it was nearly a hundred years after that before order was established and a resident governor appointed.

These wealthy fish merchants had spread the report that Newfoundland was a cold, barren country; and it has taken the outside world almost another hundred years to learn its mistake, and find out that the island has a good climate, much fertile soil, beautiful scenery, and an abundance of mineral wealth. Another cause that hindered settlement was the claim of the French that they had the *sole right* of fishing on a certain part of the coast called the "French Shore." Neither England nor Newfoundland has admitted this right; and it has been a cause of frequent disputes and ill feeling between the settlers and the French.

But though France had lost Canada by the fall of Quebec, she still had the hope of conquering Newfoundland. She knew the value of its fisheries, and looked upon it as the great training school for seamen of her navy. In 1762, on the 24th of June—a date worthy of note in the annals of Atlantic province discovery—a French

fleet arrived on the coast of Newfoundland, captured St. John's and other towns, and inflicted great injury on the settlers. But a British fleet and army soon came upon the scene; British authority was restored, and British ownership acknowledged in the following year. The population then was about 13,000 persons.

The Revolutionary War.—The causes and leading events of the struggle between England and her colonies to the south of Canada have been given in earlier pages of this book (151-156). It will be sufficient here to note the effect of this struggle on the Canadian provinces by the sea and on the St. Lawrence. Privateers, fitted out by the revolted colonies, entered the harbours and destroyed much property; but British war ships were sent out and cruised along the seaboard from Newfoundland to the St. Croix, ridding the coast of these pests. The people remained loyal to the Crown during these trying times. In 1776, a band of raiders from the border settlements of Maine, aided by some of the New Englanders who had settled at Mauderville and Chignecto, attacked Fort Cumberland, but were defeated and scattered.

It was in the valley of the St. Lawrence that the most determined attempt was made to draw the people from their allegiance to Great Britain. Soon after the revolt of the colonies, a force was sent against Montreal and another against Quebec (1775). The former was commanded by General Montgomery, an Irishman, who had fought under Wolfe at Quebec; the latter by General Benedict Arnold, a name infamous in American history. It was hoped the Canadians would join the cause of the revolted colonists, but they did not. The great mass of the French habitants had no desire for further strife; and they had looked upon the English people to the south of them as their worst enemies. As the "new subjects" of the king of Great Britain, they had been treated kindly, even generously. The wisdom and tact of Governor Carleton had won their friendship, as well as that of the clergy and seigneurs, who steadily supported him and the English cause. Among the enemies of England were many of the "old subjects," who claimed that their rights had been sacrificed by the Quebec Act. The British troops in Canada amounted to less than a thousand men at the time of the invasion;

and it required all the courage and skill of the governor to meet the danger.

Montgomery advanced against Montreal by Lake Champlain, where the way had been cleared for him a few months before by the capture of Crown Point and Ticonderoga. Taking the forts on the Richelieu river, he advanced unopposed to Montreal. Governor Carleton, seeing that his force was not sufficient to make a successful resistance, and not daring to trust to the loyalty of the inhabitants, retreated to Quebec. He and the few followers who attended him were in frequent danger of being captured by raiding bands of the enemy on their way down the St. Lawrence, but he succeeded in reaching the city safely. Meanwhile General Arnold had marched through the wilds of Maine, by the valleys of the Kennebec and Chaudiere (shō'-de-air') rivers, his troops suffering great hardships from the difficulties of the way and the scarcity of provisions. He arrived opposite Quebec early in November, shortly before Carleton reached the city; but weakened by his march and with no present means of crossing the river, he awaited the arrival of Montgomery from Montreal. After the junction of the two armies on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, the fifth and last siege of Quebec began, early in December. As the besieging force was not provided with heavy artillery, little progress was made, and it was resolved to make an assault on the city in the early morning of December 31st. While a feint was made to attack the city by way of the Plains of Abraham, Montgomery and Arnold advanced from different directions—the former by a rough road along the St. Lawrence to the front of what is called the Lower Town; the latter from the direction of the St. Charles along the low grounds to the rear of the city. It was arranged that the two forces should meet at the foot of the street that led to the citadel above. But Carleton was prepared for the attack. Montgomery's force, as it advanced through a blinding snow storm to the place of meeting, was suddenly met by a discharge of cannon and musketry. He himself and many of his soldiers were instantly killed; the rest fled. Arnold met with little better success. In attempting to force his way into the city, he was wounded and his followers surrounded and forced to surrender. Nearly five hundred men were killed, wounded or taken prisoners in the attack. The British loss was less

than twenty. Arnold kept up the siege during the winter, if siege it might be called, for his army was still further weakened by sickness, desertion and suffering from the intense cold. The arrival of a British fleet before Quebec in the spring, with an army under General Burgoyne, obliged the enemy to leave the St. Lawrence and retreat beyond Lake Champlain. On this lake a British fleet under Carleton attacked and destroyed Arnold's fleet. No further attempt was made on Canada during the war, which came to an end in 1783. By the treaty of peace the independence of the thirteen colonies was recognized. Lake Champlain and the territory claimed by Quebec south of the Great Lakes, ceased to be under British control; but a complete boundary line between Canada and the United States, was not arranged until years afterwards. In 1778, General Haldimand became governor of Canada in place of Sir Guy Carleton who returned to England.

The United Empire Loyalists.—The people of the Thirteen Colonies were not all in favour of revolt against England. Very many, while seeing that there were grievances which the British government ought to correct, could not think of such an extreme step as a separation from the parent state. On account of their loyalty to the Crown, these were called United Empire Loyalists. By the revolutionary party, they were looked upon as traitors, and were often treated with great cruelty, driven from their homes and their property taken from them. Many of the Loyalists sought refuge in British America; and at the close of the war thousands flocked into the Atlantic provinces and the country on the upper St. Lawrence and Great Lakes. The British Government gave them grants of land, and over £3,000,000 to aid in their support during the first few years. The larger number, about 30,000 persons, came to Nova Scotia, which included New Brunswick. As many as 12,000 persons were at one time settled in the town of Shelburne, but the district being unsuitable they went elsewhere. Many of the Loyalists found their way to other portions of the province and to Western Canada. About 3,000 landed at the mouth of the St. John River, May 18th, 1783, followed by about 7,000 more during the summer. In addition to these nearly 2,000 settled in Charlotte county and a considerable number in Westmorland county. Some founded the city of St.

John, while others settled in the adjacent country and further up the river. Others went to various parts of Nova Scotia, and to Cape Breton and the Island of St. John. Those who settled in the west were principally from the State of New York, and numbered about 10,000 people. Like those in the Atlantic provinces, they endured a great deal of hardship and suffering in the early years of their settlement; but in the end their courage and patience triumphed over all obstacles. To-day the British Empire has no subjects more loyal, nor Canada any better citizens, than those who trace their descent from the United Empire Loyalists.

Grants of land in the Atlantic provinces and Western Canada were given by the British government to officers and soldiers who had fought in the Revolutionary War. The Iroquois also, who had long been the allies of the English, were given lands along the Grand and Thames Rivers, between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario, and settled there. The city of Brantford is named in honour of their noted chieftain, Joseph Brant.

Separate Provinces.—We have seen that in 1769, the Island of St. John became a province. In 1798 the name was changed to Prince Edward Island, in honour of the Duke of Kent, the father of Queen Victoria. But the population grew slowly on account of the land being held by absent owners. Cape Breton became a separate province in the year 1784, but it was again united to Nova Scotia in 1820. In 1784 the part of Nova Scotia north of the Bay of Fundy was formed into the separate province of New Brunswick, and Colonel Thomas Carleton, brother of Sir Guy Carleton, became its first governor. St. John (called Parrrtown in 1784) was the first capital, and is the oldest incorporated town in British America, having received its charter on the 18th of May, 1785. Here the first legislative assembly met in 1786. The seat of government was removed in 1788 to Fredericton, which occupies the site of the former village of St. Ann's. In 1791 the Province of Quebec was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, the Ottawa River being, for the most part, the boundary line. The Province of Upper Canada was composed of English settlers of Loyalist stock; the great majority of the population of Lower Canada were French Canadians.

Constitutional Act of 1791.—The Act of the British Parliament which separated Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada also provided for the government of the two provinces. Each province was to have a governor and an advisory or executive council, a legislative council and an assembly. The governor, the executive council and the legislative council were responsible to and appointed by the Crown. The members of the legislative council held office for life. The assembly was to be elected every four years by a majority of the votes of the people. The British Parliament held the right to impose all customs duties in the trade carried on between the provinces and other portions of the British dominions or any foreign country; but the provincial parliaments could collect these duties and apportion them for public uses. The latter could also impose taxes for public purposes, such as providing for education, public buildings, roads and bridges. The money arising from customs, from mining and timber dues, and from the sale of wild lands, was under the control of the governor and the executive council. The people, through their representatives in the assembly, had very little to say in the management of their affairs; and this soon led to an agitation to make the executive council *responsible* to the assembly. This right the people of England had already partly gained for themselves, but only after centuries of effort.

The Constitutional Act also set aside one-seventh of the Crown lands for the support of a Protestant clergy in both provinces. These lands were known as the "Clergy Reserves." The free exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was secured, and the right to collect tithes and dues from their own people, as under the Quebec Act, was continued to the Roman Catholic clergy of Lower Canada. The English criminal law was to be in force in both provinces. In Upper Canada all land was to be held by freehold tenure; but in Lower Canada the farmers continued to hold their lands as tenants of the seigneurs.

During the debate in the British Parliament, before the bill became a law, there was a good deal of opposition. It was held that the division of Canada into a British and a French province would tend to keep the two races apart and prevent the development of a true national life. It was also predicted that the attempt to govern

Canada by an executive not responsible to the people would lead to failure. The act was not popular with the English, or "old subjects," of Lower Canada, who said that they were placed at a disadvantage compared with their fellow subjects in Upper Canada. The act went into effect in 1792. Lower Canada was divided into fifty electoral districts, each of which sent one member to the assembly. In the first house there were only sixteen representatives of British origin, and the number was even less in later parliaments. All bills and other papers had to be printed both in English and French, and a member could speak in either language. The legislative council was composed of fifteen members, about equally divided between French and English. Sir Guy Carleton (Lord Dorchester), who had succeeded Haldimand in 1783, was appointed governor of Lower Canada, and also the governor-general of all the provinces of British North America. The first parliament met on the 17th December, at Quebec.

The legislative assembly of Upper Canada, composed of sixteen members, and a legislative council of seven members, met at Newark (now Niagara), on the 17th September, 1792. A few years after, York (Toronto) was chosen as the capital, as it was not thought prudent to have the seat of government on the United States frontier. The first lieutenant-governor was Colonel (afterwards Major-General) Simcoe, a tried soldier, and one who proved a capable and energetic ruler.

Influence of the Loyalists.—At the time of the passage of the Constitutional Act (1791), the total population of what is now known as Canada, did not much exceed 250,000 people, of whom at least 150,000 were of French descent. The latter lived chiefly along the St. Lawrence and its branches, with about 10,000 in the Atlantic provinces, and a few scattered throughout the far west. In the French districts there was a small British population, consisting mainly of officials, traders and others. The population of Upper Canada did not exceed 25,000, composed nearly altogether of loyalist stock. The Atlantic provinces contained between 70,000 and 80,000 people, of whom more than one-half were Loyalists and descendants of those who came from New England in 1759 and the following years.

Loyalist influence in New Brunswick was scarcely less supreme

than in Upper Canada. Of the twenty-six members who composed its first house of assembly, twenty-three were Loyalists. In Nova Scotia, under the administration of Lieutenant-Governor Parr and his successor Sir John Wentworth, the Loyalists were welcomed. During the few years succeeding 1785, they almost doubled the population of that province; and both provinces contained, in addition to those from New England, many refugees from the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and the Carolinas. To a less extent the Loyalists found homes in Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and in the Eastern Townships of Lower Canada. Every district where they settled soon bore the impress of their resolute character. The forests echoed with the sturdy strokes of their axes; and settlements, villages and towns were carved out from the wilderness. They suffered as well as toiled,—for not only were luxuries almost entirely wanting in those days, but even the necessities of life were difficult to obtain, and starvation often stared the settlers in the face. But if they lacked worldly goods they did not lack in character and independence. Wherever they went their sturdy self-reliance stamped itself upon society and political institutions. They early began that struggle for representative government which they did not give up until they attained a certain measure of political freedom. And they did not gain their end by revolution—by sacrificing those principles which had led them in former years to give up everything but life and character; they gained it by loyal and steady persistence.

The governments which had been established in the Atlantic provinces did not differ materially from those which a British act of parliament had given in 1791 to Upper and Lower Canada. But in the Atlantic provinces, the assemblies were created by royal authority, not by act of parliament; and one council performed both executive and legislative functions until years afterwards. In all the provinces the councils were responsible only to the Crown and could defy the voice and opinions of the assemblies.

Improvements Begin.—We, who live in an age when travel by rail or by steamship is easy and rapid, can little imagine the toil and difficulty of going from place to place a century ago. The settlers usually built their log cabins or “shanties” on the borders of

streams and lakes, and depended on bark canoes or "dug-outs" (canoes dug out of large logs) to carry their produce to the nearest town and bring home their scanty supplies. Paths through the forest were marked by "blazed" trees; roads were few and rough; streams and swamps were crossed by bridges of logs laid side by side. Fish and game from the near-by streams and forests, and wild berries and other fruits, helped to furnish a supply of wholesome food, especially in times when crops failed or when the means of carrying supplies were costly and difficult. Some herbs were found, having useful properties in the cure of diseases; others, such as the Labrador Tea, were used instead of tea and coffee, which were very dear and hard to obtain. The maple tree, the emblem of Canada, furnished maple sugar; a dainty prized then, as it is now, by old and young.

As time wore on and the struggle for food and shelter became less intense, the people through the sparsely settled country met more frequently in social gatherings. A "barn-raising" or "house-raising" or "chopping frolic" for men, and a "quilting-party" for women and girls, drew together youths and maidens from all parts; and the afternoon of work was succeeded by an evening of dancing and other amusements. The visits of clergymen were looked forward to with great interest, to join some couple in wedlock, to baptize children, or to hold a religious service. Soon churches and rude school houses began to appear. The teachers, often old soldiers, taught a little knowledge of reading, writing and figures, at a small salary or for their board. Books were scarce, and there were few newspapers in the country. Well-worn copies of newspapers from England or the United States were passed from house to house, and read by those who could read, for the benefit of all.

Among the Loyalists from New England were many educated men, and they saw the importance of having schools and colleges. King's College was opened at Windsor, Nova Scotia, in 1790; ten years later (1800), a similar college was founded at Fredericton; and in 1820, Dalhousie College was founded in Halifax. In 1780, a public grammar school was founded in Halifax; and in 1805, one in St. John. In 1816, the Pictou Academy, Nova Scotia, was established. Grammar schools were established in nearly every

county in New Brunswick before 1820. Both in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, Church of England schools were founded at an early date, and as these were very exclusive, other denominations, in later years, established schools of their own. In 1807, grammar schools were established in Upper Canada, and a private school was started about the same time at Kingston by Archdeacon (afterwards Bishop) Strachan. The latter became the first president of King's College, Toronto (1827), afterwards Toronto University. Laval had become the great Roman Catholic University of Canada, and seminaries for the education of the Catholic youth had been established at Montreal and Quebec.

CHAPTER VII.

WAR WITH THE UNITED STATES.

The Growing Time.—In the twenty years that followed the passing of the Constitutional Act, there were few events that call for more than a passing mention. It was a time of growth. Every day the busy, active life of the new settler was devoted to adding fresh acres of cleared lands to supply his growing needs. The little world around him, cut out from the wilderness, was a very real world to him. Making a home for his little ones required strength, patience, courage, and all his time and thought. He knew little of what was going on in the outside world. In the country which he was helping to make, there were questions to settle which were every day growing weightier, and which would require his attention when the struggle for bread would become less a toil.

During these twenty years the population had doubled. The quarter of a million people in what we now call Canada had grown to half a million; and half of these were of British origin. The greatest increase had been in Upper Canada, where the population had grown from 20,000 to 80,000. The Atlantic provinces had steadily increased in population; and the people, engaged in farming, lumbering and ship-building, were every year growing in wealth. In Lower Canada there was jealousy and rivalry between the French and English; and in all the provinces there were signs of a coming struggle for more freedom in government, by which the people

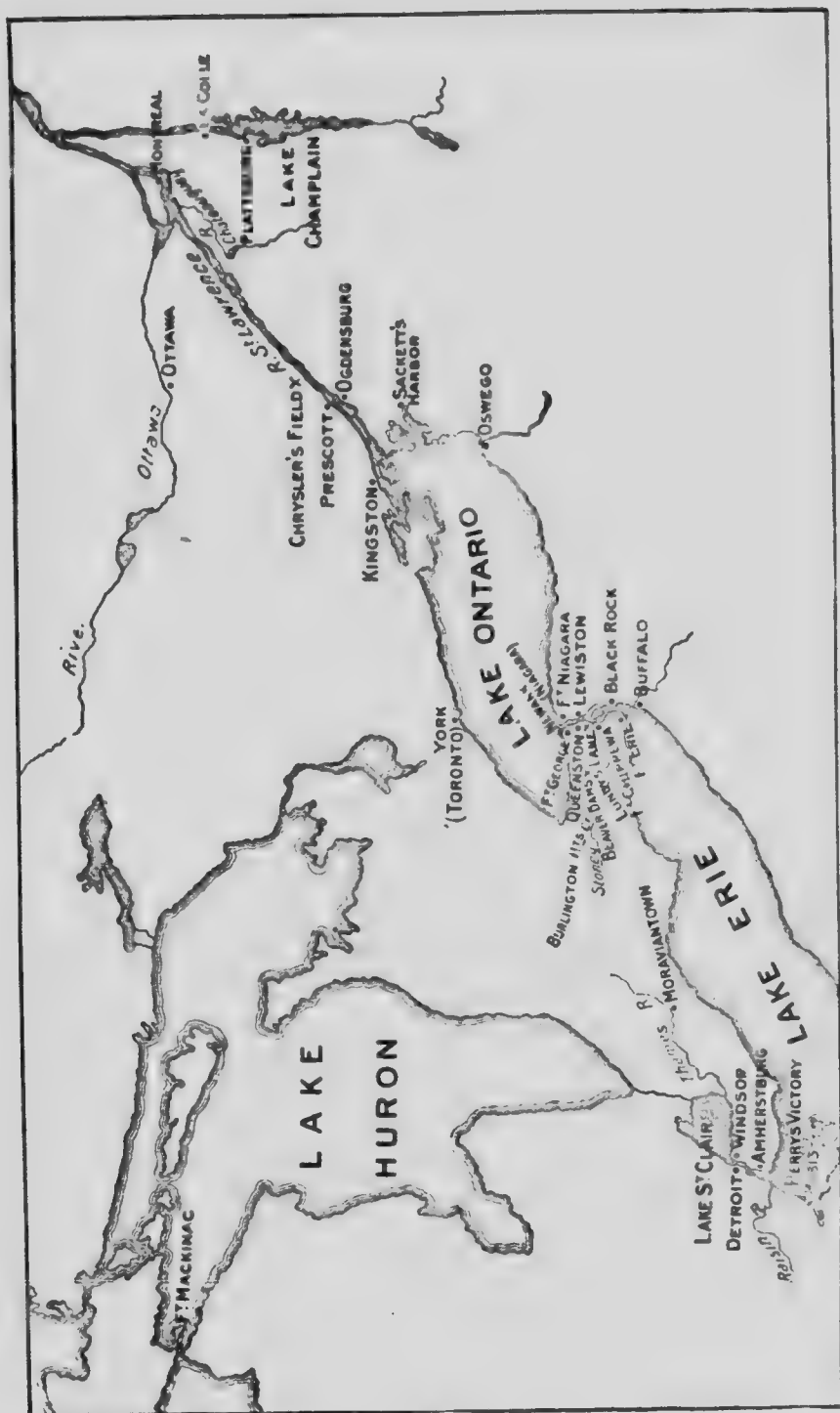
should have control of their own affairs. But there was an event approaching of greater importance, and one which for the time overshadowed all other disputes. This was the war between Great Britain and the United States, in which the provinces of Canada took a large share, and which in the end bound them closer together and closer to the great British Empire.

Causes of the War.—In Europe the French armies under Napoleon were masters of nearly every country except England, Russia and Spain. The great check upon Napoleon's power was England's navy; and he was putting forth every effort to ruin her commerce and weaken her strength as Mistress of the Seas. England had to use strong and sometimes harsh means to keep up her naval power and save her commerce; and this brought her into conflict with the United States. Napoleon had forbidden other nations to buy or sell English goods; and England forbade neutral nations to trade with France. This pressed very hard upon a nation like the United States, which was not at war with either England or France, but whose merchant ships were liable to be seized by either English or French war-ships. Another cause of ill-feeling between the two nations was the Right of Search. A British war-ship might stop any United States vessel on the sea and take from it any British subject or sailor who had deserted from her navy. The life of a sailor in the British navy was anything but easy at that time. "Press gangs" in all the ports forced men to enlist; and the discipline on board ships was severe, even cruel. Napoleon, while pretending friendship with the United States, was using all his arts to bring on a war between that nation and Great Britain. The people of the United States were then on the eve of a presidential election; and the Democratic party, always hostile to Great Britain, hoped to keep in power by favouring war. Unfortunately its efforts were successful; and war was declared on the 18th of June, 1812. On the day before, Great Britain had withdrawn the regulations which pressed so hard on United States trade. But it was too late; before the news had crossed the Atlantic the United States troops had invaded Canada.

Preparing for War.—The thrifty people of New England were opposed to war because it would injure their trade; and they gave but little aid. The Southern and Western States prepared for

active war. In the latter the enmity against Great Britain had long been bitter, because it was claimed that the British had occupied trading-posts in that country long after the treaty of peace in 1783, and that the Indians had been stirred up to make raids on the frontier settlers. The United States hoped to make an easy conquest of Canada. The border line was long, with only a few scattered forts to defend it. There were only 4,500 regular troops in the country, and Great Britain was too busy fighting Napoleon to spare many more. The people of the United States believed that when their armies appeared in Canada, they would receive active sympathy and help. But they were mistaken. The Loyalists had no desire to be re-united to a country from which they had been so cruelly driven. The French of Lower Canada were loyal, and stood side by side with the English Canadians to resist the invaders. The Indians threw themselves into the struggle against the "Long Knives," as they called the settlers who had driven them from their hunting-grounds in the Ohio valley. They fought on the side of the Canadians with bravery, but not with the fierceness and cruelty that had stained the old Iroquois wars. General Sir George Prevost was governor-general of Canada, having succeeded Sir James Craig; and the brave General Brock was lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada. The latter province took the leading part in the war, and nearly all the battles fought on Canadian soil were within its limits. Many of its loyalist inhabitants had seen active service, and its youth had been trained in military exercises. The assemblies in each province voted liberal sums to carry on the war. The fortresses of Halifax and Quebec were strengthened and defended by militia, and the regular soldiers were moved forward to Montreal. Three United States armies planned to attack Canada in 1812,—one to enter the country at Detroit, another across the Niagara River, and a third by way of Lake Champlain.

First Campaign, 1812.—General Hull, governor of Michigan, crossed the Detroit river on the 12th of July with 2,500 men. He was not joined, as he expected, by the Canadians. Meanwhile, Fort Mackinac (mäk'-in-aw'), belonging to the United States, had been captured by a force of Canadians and Indians (July 17th) without the loss of a man. This strong post, the key of the Upper



Lakes, stood on a rocky ialet in the narrow strait joining Lakes Huron and Michigan. It had been the great place of meeting between the fur-traders and Indians for more than a century. "The hives of northern Indians," led by their great Chief, Tecumseh, joined the British. Hull, cut off from supplies, retreated to Detroit, whither he was followed by General Brock and Tecumseh. Although his force was double that of the Canadians and Indians, he surrendered the fort at Detroit. More than a thousand men, officers and regulars, were sent prisoners to Quebec; the rest, consisting of militia, were allowed to return to their homes. The territory of Michigan passed into the hands of the victors, who also obtained great quantities of stores and war material. This victory raised the spirits of the Canadians, and secured the firm support of the Indians.

The Niagara frontier, at Queenston, was the next place of attack. Early on the morning of the 13th October, a body of United States troops under General VanRensselaer crossed the river. Their landing was successfully opposed by a small body of Canadian troops; but meanwhile a larger body of the enemy had, by a secret path, during the morning, taken possession of Queenston Heights. In attempting to dislodge them the brave General Brock and one of his staff, Colonel Macdonell, a young officer of great promise, were killed. But the fall of the brave general was soon avenged. The troops, under the command of General Sheaffe, the son of a Loyalist, stormed the heights, hurled the enemy from their position, killing one hundred men and capturing a thousand prisoners. In November, another attempt to cross the river near Fort Erie was defeated. The army under General Dearborn, which attempted to invade Canada by way of Lake Champlain, met with no better success. Major de Salaberry, a brave officer, at the head of a force of French Canadian militia, met the enemy at Lacolle, on the Richelieu river, and forced them to retreat. The Canadians had been everywhere successful during the year. The death of their favorite general, Sir Isaac Brock, was a severe loss; but the example of his spirit and courage served to inspire the Canadians during the whole war.

The Second Year's Campaign.—In the spring of 1813 the war was resumed, although fighting had not entirely ceased during the

winter. Raiding bands crossed on the ice from New York and plundered the Canadian villages. In mid-winter, a regiment of British and New Brunswick soldiers marched from Fredericton to Quebec on snowshoes, performing the journey in thirteen days. Both sides were drilling troops and building vessels on the lakes. The United States troops planned to invade Canada at the same points as during the previous year. It will make the story clearer to deal with each section separately, as far as possible. General Harrison was in command of the western army of invaders, and from his success in recent Indian wars much was expected of him. Colonel Proctor was in command of the Canadians at Detroit. With the aid of Tecumseh and his Indian warriors he held the enemy in check all summer, having gained a signal victory over them at Frenchtown on the Raisin River. But the complete defeat of a British fleet on Lake Erie (September 13th) made it doubtful whether he could longer hold Detroit, and he retreated, followed closely by Harrison with a force three times as great as his own.

By the advice of Tecumseh, Proctor made a stand in the forest near where Moraviantown now stands (October 5th). But the Canadians were defeated; Proctor fled, and the gallant Tecumseh, with more than a hundred of his warriors, lay dead on the field. Harrison returned to Detroit. His troops had regained possession of the territory of Michigan, and were now masters of the west.

But around Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence the year ended gloriously for the Canadians. General Sheaffe had succeeded General Brock as lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada and commander of the forces. On Lake Ontario, as on Lake Erie, the United States had, during the winter and early spring, been very active in building and manning their ships. In April, a fleet under Admiral Chauncey, with a large force of men under General Dearborn, sailed out of Sackett's Harbor, New York State, and crossing Lake Ontario, captured and plundered York (Toronto). A little later, they laid siege to Fort George, near the mouth of the Niagara River. In the meantime a British fleet crossed Lake Ontario from Kingston to attack and destroy Sackett's Harbor, but failed in its object. General Sir George Prevost, who was in command of this force, and General Sheaffe, who had allowed York to be taken without striking a blow, were blamed for their conduct.

But this ended the chapter of failures. General Vincent, who was in command at Fort George, finding that he could not keep his position, blew up the works and retreated to Burlington Heights, near the west end of Lake Ontario. He was followed by a large force of the enemy, who pitched their camp on the 5th of June at Stoney Creek. Here they were attacked during the night by a small force from Vincent's army, under the command of Colonel Harvey, afterwards Sir John Harvey, governor of New Brunswick. The enemy were thrown into confusion and beat a hasty retreat, after their two generals and over a hundred men had been taken prisoners. To make up for the disgrace of such a defeat, a night attack was planned by a strong detachment of United States forces against Beaver Dams, a post some miles west of Queenston, held by Lieutenant Fitzgibbon. But he was informed of the intended attack by Laura Secord, a Canadian heroine, who walked twenty miles through the forest to give him warning. By a well-laid plan he succeeded in capturing the entire force of over 500 men sent against him. The season closed by the enemy withdrawing from the Niagara frontier; but not before they had laid waste the country and destroyed much property. On the night of the 10th December, the village of Newark (Niagara) was burned and the inhabitants turned out of their homes in the bitter cold of a winter night. In revenge for this, the British crossed Niagara River, took Fort Niagara, with several hundred prisoners, and burned all the towns and villages as far as Buffalo. Thus the ravages of war caused many innocent people to suffer.

The army under General Hampton, on Lake Champlain, was waiting until the armies in Upper Canada should complete their work. Then the united forces were to make an attack on Montreal. Colonel de Salaberry checked Hampton's advance towards Montreal by a repulse in the woods near the Chateauguay (shah'-tō-gay') River. De Salaberry posted his men so cleverly that Hampton thought he had a large force, and withdrew to Lake Champlain. This was in the last days of October. Early in November a force under General Wilkinson sailed from Sackett's Harbor, down the St. Lawrence; and, landing near Prescott, made their way along the bank of the river. They were attacked at Chrystler's Farm, near where Cornwall now stands, and after a fierce battle were defeated

by a much smaller British force. No further attempt was made against Montreal that year.

Events of 1814.—The war ended in 1814. In March, General Wilkinson again pushed forward towards Montreal; but at Lacolle Mill, near the Richelieu, he met with such a strong resistance from the little garrison of 500 men that he gave up the attempt and retreated to Lake Champlain. Oswego, on Lake Ontario, was captured by the British commander, Sir Gordon Drummond, and Sir James Yeo, the naval commander on the lakes. In July, the Niagara River was again crossed by 4,000 United States troops under General Brown, who took Fort Erie. General Riall, with 2,000 British and Canadians, opposed this large force at Chippewa, further down the river, but after an obstinate battle he was forced to retreat towards Fort George. He took up a position at Lundy's Lane, near Niagara Falls, where he was joined by General Drummond with 800 men. The enemy, after burning the dwellings of the farmers, advanced to Lundy's Lane, where was fought the bloodiest and most stubbornly contested battle of the war (July 25th). It raged with varying success from six o'clock in the afternoon until midnight, when the United States troops retired with a loss of 1,000 killed and wounded. The loss of the British and Canadians was nearly as great; but they held their position with a smaller force, and theirs was the greater glory. Drummond pursued the enemy to Fort Erie, which he besieged, but failed to capture. Towards the close of the season the United States forces blew up the fort and re-crossed the river. Canada was now free from the invader.

The war in Europe had ceased for a time. Napoleon had been banished to Elba. Great Britain was able to send out troops to assist the gallant Canadians in their struggle. A fine army was led by Sir George Prevost (prev-vō') against Plattsburg on Lake Champlain; but the British fleet on the lake was defeated, and Prevost, to his great shame, retired without attacking the town. In August, a British fleet entered Chesapeake Bay, took Washington, the capital of the United States, and burned the public buildings. Mobile was also captured; but the British were defeated at New Orleans by General Jackson, a fortnight after the Treaty of Ghent (pr. gent, the *g* hard), Dec. 14th, 1814. This ended the war. Many of the

questions in dispute between Great Britain and the United States were left unsettled, and gave rise to disputes in after years.

The Atlantic provinces had been free from invasion and the horrors of war, owing to the presence of a large British fleet stationed at Halifax. In July and August, the State of Maine, from the St. Croix to the Penobscot, was invaded and occupied by an army under Sir John Sherbrooke, governor of Nova Scotia. During the first year of the war, the United States navy gained many successes, but in the following years Britain's supremacy of the seas was restored. In the great naval duel, in 1813, off Boston Harbour, between the British ship "Shannon" and the United States ship "Chesapeake," the latter was captured and taken into Halifax Harbour. In 1814, the coast of the United States was blockaded by British war-ships. Both nations were glad to make peace; and it is hoped that these people, of a common origin, speaking the same language and having the same interests, may never again go to war with each other.

CHAPTER VIII.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

After the War.--The war caused a great deal of suffering among the people of Upper Canada. Many of those who had gone out to fight in defence of their country slept in soldiers' graves; many came back maimed or disabled for life; and those who returned safe and sound found it not an easy task to resume their former steady habits of work. Women and children had been obliged to work in the fields during the war, to sow the seeds and gather the harvests, and they did not know what moment some roving bands of the enemy might invade their homes, perhaps to plunder and destroy, or carry off their hard-earned and scanty stores of food. Small pensions were granted to those who had been wounded in the war and to the widows and orphans of those killed in battle. There was still alive in the land the same brave spirit that had led men to fight in defence of their homes and their wives and children to work and wait patiently for the end. The struggle for subsistence was to begin over again with many—in rebuilding their homes and repairing the ravages of war. But they took up their

wanted tasks as true heroes have ever done ; they kept alive the memory of those whose blood had been shed in a just cause ; and in after years the marble shaft on many a battle field was to tell the story of the fallen brave.

A Quarter Century of Material Progress.—During the twenty-five years between 1815 and 1840 the older or eastern portion of what is now Canada grew rapidly in population, trade and manufactures. There was only one settlement in the Far West. Into this "great lone land," by way of Hudson's Bay, had come, in 1812, a company of Scottish and Irish settlers, brought out by Lord Selkirk, of the Hudson's Bay Company. They founded a colony at Assiniboia, on the Red River. They were soon forced to leave the country partly from the hardships they endured, but more from the jealousy and ill-will of the Northwest Fur Company. In 1816, Governor Semple, who was at the head of the colony, and twenty of his men, lost their lives in an affray with the employees of the company. Over the affairs of this unfortunate colony the two rival fur companies became involved in a quarrel which led in 1821 to the union of the two into a new company, still known as the Hudson's Bay Company, and having a charter from the British government for twenty-five years.

In the twenty five years following the close of the war, the population of Upper Canada and the Atlantic provinces was more than doubled, and there was a large increase in Lower Canada. Immigrants poured into the country from England, Scotland and Ireland, and the best lands were soon taken up and settled. The log cabins of the early settlers gave place to comfortable dwelling-houses, often of brick or stone. In 1832, the Asiatic cholera broke out in Quebec, and in the following years spread through the upper provinces. This checked immigration for a time. Trade increased rapidly, especially along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. Canals were built in places where the rapids in the rivers hindered navigation. Montreal, Quebec and Toronto, St. John and Halifax grew into flourishing cities, and villages and towns sprang up all over the country. As early as 1809, a steamboat had made trips on the St. Lawrence between Quebec and Montreal ; and soon steamers were plying in every direction on the seas and inland waters of Canada. Agriculture made

rapid strides, and Canadian wheat and other farm products found their way over the ocean. In the greater part of Lower Canada and the Atlantic provinces, where the soil and climate were not so favourable to the growth of large crops as in Upper Canada, lumbering, ship-building, the fisheries, and mining, became large industries, in many cases to the neglect of farming. In these provinces there was often great loss of property from forest fires. By the Great Fire of Miramichi in the summer of 1825, thousands of square miles of valuable forest lands were made a blackened desert, many thriving villages and settlements burned, and nearly two hundred people lost their lives. Although no such terrible calamity has since visited Canada, nearly every season has witnessed great loss to the country from careless lumbering and from the brush fires of settlers.

After the war the paper-money or army bills were called in and redeemed in coin. These were "promises to pay" made by the government when it needed money to carry on the war; and it speaks well for the government and the country that they were redeemed at their full face value, although it was a time of distress and great scarcity of money. As trade grew and flourished, banks began to be established in the chief cities, and money circulated more freely. Some advances were made in education; but the masses of the people were still too much engaged in the struggle for bread to give much attention to founding schools. It was estimated in 1837 that not one-fifteenth of the population of the provinces of Canada attended school. "The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel," in carrying on missionary work for the Church of England had received large grants of money from the English parliament, which it used in establishing schools and giving religious instruction throughout Canada. It was, however, not left only to the provincial government and the Church of England to establish and maintain colleges and schools. Generous men of wealth and different denominations of Christians gave of their means to education. McGill College, founded by a generous merchant of Montreal, was opened in 1829; Upper Canada College in 1837. The Baptists founded Acadia College at Wolfville in 1838; and the Methodists, by means of the generous benefactions of Mr. Charles F. Allison, began, in the year 1841, the Mt. Allison Institutions at

Sackville. The laws against Roman Catholics were repealed in the different provinces, and they were given the same right as Protestants to vote and hold offices under government.

Struggle for Responsible Government.—We have seen that in every Canadian province the same form of government had been established—a governor and council appointed by the Crown, and a legislative assembly elected by the people. The governor and council so managed affairs that the people had very little share in governing themselves. As time went on and the people grew in numbers and influence, the demand grew stronger for a representative government, that is, a system in which those elected by the people as their representatives should have control over the affairs of the country. It can readily be seen that in a new country, where the population is small, there may not be, for a time, a sufficient number of able men to carry on the government. It was for this reason that the home government wished to keep the control of affairs, especially in the early history of the colonies, in its own hands, or in the hands of those directly appointed by it. But when men become accustomed to rule they are not easily led to give up their power to others, especially to those whom they have been taught to look upon as their inferiors in birth and social position, as well as in the ability to rule. In all the provinces, the chief offices in the government were held by the members of a few families, who thought that they alone had a right to these offices. This was termed the "Family Compact," because those in it worked for the interests of one another, as do members of the same family. Many in the Compact were Loyalists; others were from England, and, by the influence of friends, had managed to get themselves appointed to office. Those who came into the country later found themselves shut out of office and positions of influence by the members of the Family Compact. They, with others who had been in the country for a longer time, saw the need of change; and thus there grew up the Liberals or Reformers; while those who were opposed to change were called Conservatives or Tories.

Among the grievances complained of was the management of the Crown lands. These were the lands that had not been portioned out for settlement. The British government claimed the right

to hold and dispose of all lands not settled. It also claimed the right to levy the duties on all goods brought into Canada, lest the provinces might put on too high duties. The revenues from both these sources—that is from the sale of timber and wild lands, and from duties on imports—were controlled by the governor and his council, and they could use the money as they pleased, without consulting the wishes of the majority in the assembly.

A grievance that existed in Upper Canada was that of the "Clergy Reserves." By the act of 1791, one-seventh of the land in that province had been set apart for the support of a Protestant clergy and for the use of schools. The Church of England clergy held that they alone were entitled to the grants of these lands, but other denominations claimed their share, and the dispute caused much ill-feeling.

The Rebellion of 1837-38.—The struggle for responsible government in Upper and Lower Canada was carried on with great bitterness, until some went so far as to try to overthrow the government with the aim of establishing a republic like that of the United States. A rebellion broke out in each province; but fortunately was put down with but little bloodshed. The leader of the rebellion in Upper Canada was William Lyon Mackenzie, a Scotsman of a rash and excitable temper. In Lower Canada, the leaders were Louis Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson. Papineau was a brilliant man who had great influence over the French. Like Mackenzie, he was impulsive, and wanted to have abuses reformed at once. Several outbreaks took place in the neighbourhood of Montreal in the fall of 1837. These were easily put down by Sir John Colborne, commander of the British forces in Canada. In the following May (1838), Lord Durham arrived at Quebec, as governor-general and commissioner, to examine into the cause of the rebellion. He proclaimed a pardon to the rebels on the 28th of June, the coronation day of Queen Victoria. He banished Nelson to Bermuda, and forbade Papineau, who was then in the United States, to return to the province under pain of death. Lord Durham, in an able and fair report to the British Government, advised the union of all the provinces under one parliament; or, if that were not possible, the union of Upper and Lower Canada under responsible government. After he left Quebec, the rebellion again

broke out, but it was quelled after some destruction of life and property. Twelve of the leaders were tried and executed at Montreal.

In Upper Canada, Sir John Colborne had been succeeded as lieutenant-governor in 1836 by Sir Francis Bond Head, a man very unfit for the position in a trying time. He allowed himself to be led by members of the Family Compact. His weakness, and the rashness of Mackenzie, led to the rebellion. The followers of Mackenzie planned to attack York (Dec. 7th, 1837), while the troops were absent putting down the rebellion in Lower Canada. Had the attempt to take York been strong and well planned, the result might have been serious; but it failed through the weakness and cowardice of the leaders. The rebels were easily defeated, and Mackenzie escaped to Buffalo. Here he gathered a band of reckless men from across the border, seized Navy Island, two miles above Niagara Falls, fortified it, and prepared to invade Canada. Colonel McNab, the commander of the troops on the Canadian side, sent a party of men under cover of night to destroy the little steamer "Caroline," which was used to carry supplies to the rebels from their friends in Buffalo. The steamer was set on fire, taken out into mid-stream, and allowed to drift over the falls. Navy Island was then abandoned. The British Government sent an apology to the United States for the destruction of property; but Colonel McNab was made a knight and presented with a sword. The United States Government sent a body of troops to the frontier to prevent men and supplies from being sent over to Canada; but sympathy with the rebels was very active, and numbers succeeded in crossing the border at various points on the St. Lawrence and by way of Detroit. Near Prescott, a decisive engagement took place in which thirty rebels were killed, and one hundred and thirty taken prisoners. This ended the rebellion in Upper Canada. Mackenzie was in exile; many of the rebels were tried and executed; others were banished to the penal settlements of New South Wales.

Mackenzie and Papineau were afterwards pardoned. Both men returned to Canada after some years and again entered political life, but not as leaders.

Union of Upper and Lower Canada.—The result of the long agitation which ended in rebellion was the union of Upper and

Lower Canada, in 1840, under one parliament. This prepared the way, a quarter of a century afterwards, for the larger plan proposed by Lord Durham-- union of all the provinces and territories of British North America. Though the French of Lower Canada and the Family Compact of Upper Canada opposed the union, fearing loss of influence; yet by the tact and skill of the governor, Charles Poulett Thompson, afterwards Lord Sydenham, all difficulties were smoothed. The bill for union passed the British Parliament in 1840, and came into effect in February, 1841. There was to be a legislative council of not less than twenty members, appointed by the Crown for life; a legislative assembly of forty-two members from each province; and an executive council of eight members, responsible to the assembly which was now given control of the revenues.

Responsible Government in the Atlantic Provinces.—Responsible government in the Atlantic provinces was gained more quietly. The same abuses in the government of the provinces existed as in Upper and Lower Canada. The members of the Family Compact held all the offices, and steadily used their influence against reform. The agitation for responsible government began some years later than in the provinces on the St. Lawrence; and it was not until 1848 that reform was secured. In 1832, the functions of the legislative council of New Brunswick were divided, and the executive and legislative councils were henceforth separated as provided for Upper and Lower Canada by the Act of 1791. The same change was made in the councils of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island a few years later. But the change did not lessen the evils complained of; the Family Compact flourished as before.

The most brilliant leader of reform in New Brunswick was a young lawyer, Lemuel Allen Wilmot, afterwards a judge and lieutenant-governor of the province. He was an eloquent speaker, a keen and ready debater, and gifted with many varied talents. Associated with him was Charles Fisher, afterwards Judge Fisher, an able lawyer and an energetic and consistent public man. The leader in Nova Scotia was Joseph Howe, who threw himself into the contest with the greatest zeal and energy. He was an able writer and speaker, and a fearless champion of the people's rights.

Wilnot, Fisher and Howe were of Loyalist descent, and were members of the assembly. During this period of agitation Sir John Harvey, the hero of Stoney Creek, was successively governor of Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. He tried to calm the strife between opposing parties; and, as he was in favour of reform, he gained the ill-will of the Tories. In Prince Edward Island the struggle was carried on steadily, and with the same successful result as in the other provinces.

In Newfoundland the people only gained the right to elect an Assembly in 1832, and therefore the struggle with them for a freer form of government began later. The hard times at the close of the war of 1812-14 were felt even more keenly in Newfoundland than in the other provinces. During the war the people had obtained good prices for their fish, but at the close the wages of the fishermen and the prices of fish became very low, and there was much suffering in consequence.

CHAPTER IX.

BEFORE CONFEDERATION.

Progress.—In the quarter of a century or more that passed between 1840 and the time of the confederation of the provinces of Canada, the progress of the country was greater than during any previous period of the same length. The people began now to enjoy a measure of that freedom of government which is so necessary to all real progress, especially of the British races. It was an age of railways and steamboats; and the building and working of these opened up new industries, increased travel and trade to a vast extent, gave employment to many men, and brought into the country a steady stream of people engaged in various pursuits. The population, a little over 1,500,000 in 1841, increased in a quarter of a century to nearly 3,500,000. Colonies sprang up in the great west. Upper Canada, with its superior soil and climate, became a great agricultural province. In Lower Canada and the Atlantic provinces ship-building and lumbering became great industries; and the mines of British Columbia, Nova

Scotia and other sections of the country became new sources of wealth. Villages and towns grew into cities, the centres of an industrious and self-reliant population.

To provide for the better defence of the country companies of volunteers were formed in the various provinces. In a few years these were judged sufficient for the needs of the country; and the British regular troops were withdrawn (1870), except a small force at Halifax.

A decimal system of coinage and currency was first adopted in 1858, in which dollars and cents came into use instead of pounds, shillings and pence. The metric system of weights and measures is in use in nearly all foreign countries. Legalized in Great Britain in 1864, and in Canada in 1873, it has not yet become common except in scientific works and at a few ports.

Better Means of Communication.—The Victorian Age, as the period from the accession of Queen Victoria, in 1837, has been called, saw at its beginning new and rapid means of communication between nations, by steamship, railway, and telegraph. Before the time of railways, people travelled long distances and carried goods in vessels; and therefore settlers did not like to be far from the sea or from navigable rivers. The people of Canada had already spent much money in building canals where falls and rapids along the St. Lawrence prevented the free passage of vessels from the Lower St. Lawrence to the Great Lakes. Great numbers of small sailing vessels were built every year for the carrying trade on lakes and rivers, as well as for the coasting trade in the Atlantic provinces. A great number of ocean-sailing ships were built at Quebec, and at St. John, Yarmouth, Halifax and other places in the Atlantic provinces. This industry became so great in Nova Scotia that the province had more vessels afloat according to population than many of the older maritime countries of the world. Steamship communication was established between the ports of British America and England and other countries. In 1840, Samuel Cunard, a Nova Scotian, and founder of the famous Cunard line of steamers, began to carry passengers and mails regularly between England and these provinces; and in 1854, the Allan line of steamships was running between Montreal and Liverpool.

Communication by land routes was of later growth. The roads for a long time were poorly made and allowed to remain in bad condition, except the "post" roads, as they were called, between the principal cities and towns. These were well kept; and stage coaches carrying mails and passengers ran regularly and proved a great convenience to those living inland. Among the most important of these roads in the east were those from Halifax to Annapolis Royal, Halifax to St. John, and St. John to Quebec. In the best days of such travelling, a journey of from 80 to 100 miles in a day could easily be made; and there are many who delight to recall the spirited scene of the old-fashioned stage-coach, drawn by four horses which were changed at "stages" of every fifteen miles. The driver, "news from all nations lumbering at his back," kept his four-in-hand well under control, and was the admiration and delight of every urchin along the road. But travel by the old-fashioned stage-coach passed away, and the age of rapid transit began. Railways were built, at first very slowly, so that by 1850 there were not more than fifty miles of railroad in operation in Canada. During the next few years there was a great change. The Grand Trunk and Great Western lines were built in the west; a line from St. John to Shediac, one from Halifax to Windsor and Truro, and numerous shorter lines built in the Atlantic provinces and in Upper Canada. The Intercolonial Railway was planned. Indeed, so great was the progress in making railroads that at the time of Confederation Canada had over 3,000 miles in operation, including the great Victoria railway bridge across the St. Lawrence, at Montreal. Although many of these roads did not at first pay, they opened up new portions of country for settlement, made land more valuable, and it became much easier for people to travel and send produce and goods from place to place. Letters and newspapers were carried with less cost and with much greater quickness and regularity than in former years. In 1851, the management of postal affairs, which had been under the control of the home government, was handed over to the different provincial governments, and postage stamps came into use. This was much more convenient than paying directly in money whenever a letter was posted. More rapid communication by means of the telegraph was introduced in 1847. An ocean telegraph



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)



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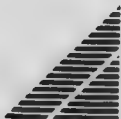
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cable was laid from Ireland to Newfoundland in 1858 ; but this proving unworkable a new one was laid in 1866.

Boundaries Settled. — The boundary lines between British America and the United States had not been definitely settled in the east and extreme west. Several times Great Britain and the United States were on the verge of war on account of boundary disputes ; but each time wiser counsels prevailed and peace was preserved. The British Government sent out Lord Ashburton with full powers to arrange matters in dispute ; and the United States appointed for the purpose Daniel Webster, a famous lawyer and statesman. The St. Croix River had been fixed as the boundary line between New Brunswick and Maine, but the particular branch of that river which the boundary should follow was in dispute. This was decided by the Ashburton Treaty of 1842 ; and of the 12,000 square miles of disputed territory between New Brunswick and Maine, the United States got 7,000 and Great Britain 5,000 square miles. From the head waters of the St. Croix, the boundary line was traced westward to the 49th parallel of latitude beyond the Lake of the Woods. This parallel had been fixed by the treaty of 1783 as the boundary line as far as the Rocky Mountains, but beyond that to the Pacific Ocean, the line was unsettled.

The United States claimed the whole Pacific coast as far north as the southern boundary of Alaska, then in possession of Russia. This would have shut out Great Britain completely from the Pacific Ocean ; but in 1846, when war again threatened, the Treaty of Oregon fixed upon the 49th parallel from the Rocky Mountains westward, and through the Strait of Juan de Fuca to the ocean. This gave all Vancouver Island to the British. The small island of San Juan was still claimed by both nations ; but, the matter being left to the decision of the Emperor of Germany, he awarded it in 1871 to the United States. Thus nearly a century passed before the determination of the boundary line between Canada and the United States was completed. Recently a fresh dispute has arisen concerning the boundary between Canada and Alaska. This is not yet settled (1901).

The Great West. — We have seen that Selkirk's Settlement, or the Red River Settlement, for many years the only colony in the

Great West, suffered hardships at the hands of the fur traders of the Northwest Company. After it came under the protection of the new Hudson's Bay Company, its troubles were not ended. Sudden floods in spring, plagues of grasshoppers in summer, and Indian wars on its borders at any season, made the lot of the settlers a hard one. Many found their way eastward to the frontier settlements of Upper Canada. Those who remained, after various changes and hardships, established themselves near where the city of Winnipeg now stands. Here the Hudson's Bay Company had built the trading post, Fort Garry, at the junction of the Red and Assiniboine rivers. Around this post flocked English and French half-breeds, discharged soldiers of the British army, missionaries, retired employees of the Hudson's Bay Company and others—a motley crowd. Many married Indian wives. They spread themselves along the two rivers from Fort Garry as a centre; and thus was formed the beginning of the province of Manitoba (*man-i-tō'-ba*).

In the early years of the nineteenth century a few hardy and bold hunters—the *coureurs de bois* of earlier times found their way over the vast prairies to the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains. It was not until 1859 that an attempt was made to reach the Pacific from Upper Canada by an overland journey. In that year two parties started with ox-teams and guides, and, after suffering the greatest hardships, only the strongest succeeded in reaching the Western Ocean by a toilsome and dangerous march of nearly six months. Few dreamed then that in less than a quarter of a century the overland journey would be made in less than six days! The discovery of gold along the rivers of the Pacific slope, in 1857, had led these men to attempt the journey across the continent. Their sufferings did not prevent others from trying; and soon hundreds were to be seen along the trails, with ox-teams and on foot, slowly trudging to the gold fields of the west. A few years before this (1849), Vancouver Island had been given by the British government to the Hudson's Bay Company, on condition that they would plant a colony there. As early as 1842, this company had built a fort where now the city of Victoria stands, so that they might be well within British limits in case they had to remove their posts from the United States territory south of them. The Treaty of Oregon (1846) showed the wisdom of their course. The Hudson's Bay

Company, however, were poor colonizers except in their own way. After three years, Vancouver Island had only thirty settlers. The governor who had been sent out to rule the colony returned to England. The company controlled affairs, and the first legislative assembly, elected in 1856, was under its influence. But the rush for gold and the discovery of coal brought about a great change. Men hurried thither by ship and by the overland route from all parts of the continent and from Europe—all eager for gold. Villages of tents and huts moved to and fro, wherever the search for the precious metal was carried on. Thousands of people came into the country, many to return disappointed. The greater portion, charmed with the climate and the fertility of the soil, remained—some to continue the search for gold in the river beds farther inland, others to settle down as farmers and traders. Soon Victoria, New Westminster, Yale, Cariboo, Nanaimo became flourishing towns. Two separate colonies were formed, with Sir James Douglas as joint governor—Vancouver Island, with Victoria as its capital; and British Columbia, with New Westminster as capital. The ruling authority of the Hudson's Bay Company came to an end. In 1866, the two colonies were united, with Frederick Seymour as governor. In 1867, Victoria was made the capital of the united colonies. To govern the rough men who had swarmed into the country had been a matter of some difficulty; but Chief Justice Matthew Begbie, who had been sent out by the British government, in 1858, soon brought about by his wisdom and firmness a reign of law and order.

Under One Government.—The government of the united provinces of Upper and Lower Canada first met at Kingston; afterwards in Montreal; then four years in turn, at Toronto and Quebec. This plan of changing about did not satisfy anyone; and finally Ottawa was chosen by the Queen as the capital (1858), and fine parliament buildings were erected there a few years later, the corner-stone of which was laid by the Prince of Wales (Edw VII), in 1860. In 1841, for the first time in the history of Canada, the governor chose his advisers, or executive council, from the members of the assembly elected by the people. One of the first acts of the new parliament was to pass the Municipal Law, which gave every city, town and county the right to manage its own local affairs, and to raise taxes for local purposes. Thus was another great

advance made in popular government. Dr. Egerton Ryerson was entrusted with the task of framing a system of free schools for Upper Canada ; and for thirty years, as superintendent of education, he devoted himself to arranging and perfecting the system. In 1847, Lord Elgin became governor of Canada, and showed great wisdom and tact in managing affairs. The governor before him, Sir Charles Metcalfe, had attempted to follow in the footsteps of former governors in making appointments without the advice of his ministers, or executive council. This showed the people that responsible government was not so firmly established but that some arbitrary governor could still make trouble by attempting to have his own way.

Under Lord Elgin's wise rule the country prospered greatly. The British parliament gave to Canada the power of imposing duties on goods coming into the country. In 1854, a reciprocity treaty was arranged between the British North American Provinces and the United States by which certain natural products of either country could be exchanged without payment of duties. The use of canals in Canada and the right to fish in certain coast waters was given to the United States. In return Canada had the right to use the waters of Lake Michigan as a highway for her vessels.

The question of how to dispose of the clergy reserves was settled by selling the lands and dividing the proceeds among the different municipalities for educational or other public purposes ; the rights of the clergy being protected. The question of land-holding in Lower Canada was settled by buying the lands from the seigneurs, each tenant paying a certain sum, the balance being paid out of a fund granted for that purpose by the government. A great grievance was thus removed, and the French-Canadian farmers became land-owners, or freeholders, like the English farmers of Upper Canada.

In 1849, an act was passed to pay those in Lower Canada, as the Loyalists in Upper Canada had been paid, for losses of property suffered in the Rebellion of 1837-38. The country was greatly excited over this question ; and there was strong opposition to it among the Conservatives. "No Pay to Rebels!" was the cry. When the law was passed riots took place in Toronto and Montreal. In the latter city, where parliament was sitting, the mob insulted the governor-general, Lord Elgin, by pelting him with stones and

rotten eggs, drove the members of parliament from their places, and set fire to the assembly building, destroying the valuable library containing books and public records. The houses of well-known Reformers were damaged in several of the principal cities, but peace and good feeling were soon restored.

Some changes were made in the Union Act of 1840 : The French language, which had been restricted, was again put on the same footing as English and made an official language in parliament ; the legislative council was made elective ; and a demand was made for "representation by population," Upper Canada claiming the right, through the Reform party, to have more members in the assembly because of her greater wealth and population. It was at this time (about 1864), when men saw the necessity of a change, that the plan of Confederation of the Provinces of British North America, proposed by Lord Durham, began to be thought of seriously. Among the chief men in the Canadian parliament of those times were John A. Macdonald, Geo. E. Cartier, Sir Allan McNab, on the Conservative side ; and George Brown, A. A. Dorion, Francis Hincks, William McDougall, of the Reform party. In 1854, Lord Elgin was succeeded as governor by Sir Edmund Head.

The Atlantic Provinces.—In the quarter of a century before Confederation, the Atlantic provinces grew rapidly in population and wealth. The failure of the potato crop in Ireland, and the famine there in 1847, brought large numbers of the people to British America. Between the years 1840 and 1850, over 350,000 immigrants arrived at Quebec ; 37,000 came to New Brunswick, and the other Atlantic provinces had a large increase of population. In 1848, the boon of responsible government was gained in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the former province the Reform party was led, as we have seen, by Lemuel Allen Wilmot, and there were associated with him Charles Fisher, William Ritchie and S. L. Tilley, names well known in the history of New Brunswick. In 1841, Sir William Colebrooke was appointed governor. He had such a small regard for the aims of the Reformers, that he appointed his own son-in-law to the important office of provincial secretary. But this was too much even for the enemies of reform, and in a short time the governor's son-in-law gave up the office.

In Nova Scotia the struggle was more keen and bitter. Lord

Falkland, appointed governor in 1843, proved as unyielding to the demands of the Reformers as Sir Colin Campbell, the previous governor. The quarrel between him and Joseph Howe, the champion of the people's rights, became so bitter that Lord Falkland resigned and was succeeded by Sir John Harvey (1846); and responsible government was gained. Opposed to Joseph Howe was James W. Johnston, leader of the Conservative party, a man of great worth and sterling integrity. For over thirty years these two men, so opposite to each other in their political views as well as in temperament, held the respect and affection of their followers. In the same party with Johnston in later years was Dr. Charles Tupper; with Howe there were associated Uniacke, Young and others.

In Prince Edward Island, George Coles, a man who had raised himself from a humble position by his own efforts, was the leader of the agitation for responsible government, which was gained for that province in 1851. The population was then 65,000, and it was greatly increased in the next few years. Trade prospered owing to excellent markets in the United States for the fish and farm products. The possession of nearly all the island by absent proprietors, who did not think of improving their lands but only of collecting their rents, was still a great hindrance to progress. Many attempts had been made to arrange terms with these proprietors, but without result, until the year 1872, when an arrangement was made compelling them to sell their lands to the tenants. Prince Edward Island had a system of free school education as early as 1852. In 1855 a normal school, and in 1859 the Prince of Wales College, were established at Charlottetown. Some years after these institutions were united.

A system of free schools was introduced into Nova Scotia, in 1864, while Hon. Chas. Tupper was leader of the government; and in New Brunswick, in 1872, through the efforts of Hon. Geo. E. King, the free schools took the place of schools supported by the fees of those who sent children to them and by the government grants to teachers. Under the free school system each district or section taxed itself for the support of its own schools, the government grants being continued to teachers. The free school systems of the Atlantic provinces were planned after that of Upper Canada; but

now they go further in maintaining free high schools for secondary education, as well as free common schools. Great benefits have resulted from establishing such liberal provisions for education in these provinces. In Nova Scotia, J. W. Dawson, afterwards Sir William Dawson, and Rev. Dr. Forrester, both of whom filled the office of superintendent of education under the old system, did much to awaken interest in free schools. Dr. T. H. Rand was the first superintendent of education under the new system in Nova Scotia ; and when free schools came into operation in New Brunswick, in 1872, he was chosen to fill the same office there.

During the eleven years (1855-1866) that the Reciprocity Treaty with the United States was in force, a great trade had sprung up. Lumber, fish, the products of the farm and the mines, found a ready market near at hand. During the civil war in that country (1861-65), trade was unusually brisk, and the prices of fish, farm produce and horses were high. Wages were good, and merchants made large profits on their goods. The coasting vessels of the Atlantic provinces did a large carrying trade. Many men from the provinces enlisted as soldiers in the United States armies, tempted by the large bounties offered. At the close of the war, during which some events had led to ill-feeling, and at times almost to war between Great Britain and the United States, the latter country refused to renew the Reciprocity Treaty. Bands of Fenians, whose object was the independence of Ireland, thought this a favorable time to invade the British provinces. Preparations were made in the spring of 1866 to seize the Island of Campobello and use it for the invasion of New Brunswick ; and other forces gathered on the southern banks of the St. Lawrence to attack Montreal. But the United States government sent troops to the frontier, and the Fenians were dispersed. In June, another band crossed the Niagara River at Fort Erie. The Fenians were met at Ridgeway, about ten miles west of Fort Erie, by volunteers from Toronto and Hamilton, and dispersed ; but not before seven Canadians were killed and a number wounded.

Union.—At Charlottetown, on the 1st September, 1864, there was held a meeting which proved to be the turning point in the history of the provinces of British North America. On that day, delegates from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island

gathered to talk over the question of union of these three provinces. News of this meeting had gone to the provinces on the St. Lawrence, and there came knocking for admission at the doors of the Charlottetown Convention eight delegates from Canada, who had in their minds the idea of a larger union. These delegates were warmly welcomed. The larger idea was received with favour by the delegates of the sea provinces; and a meeting was appointed for the month of October, in the city of Quebec. Here delegates met from six provinces (including Newfoundland), and after a session of eighteen days decided upon a plan of union which was to be submitted to the legislatures of the different provinces for approval. In Canada, where such a union had long been thought of as a remedy for political troubles, the plan was approved of early in the following year. Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland would have nothing to do with the proposed union. In New Brunswick, the question was submitted to the people, and nearly all the supporters of union, including Hon. S. L. Tilley, the leader of the government, were beaten at the polls. A new government opposed to union was formed, led by Hon. Albert J. Smith. In Nova Scotia, the legislature, of which Hon. Charles Tupper was the leader, refused for a time to consider the question. It is but just to state, in accounting for such a general opposition to the scheme, that the people of the Atlantic provinces had only thought of the smaller union; too little time had been given to consider the larger union with Canada.

But a bold stroke in New Brunswick gave another turn to affairs. The lieutenant-governor, Hon. A. H. Gordon, in opposition to his ministers, favoured the union, stating that it was the wish of the British Government. His ministers resigned. Another election was held, in 1866, and Hon. S. L. Tilley was returned to power with a majority in favour of union. The Nova Scotia Legislature, without an appeal to the people, then gave its assent to union, Mr. Archibald, the opposition leader, supporting the leader of the government on the question. In the same year delegates from the four provinces met in London and framed the terms of union, which became law by Act of the British Parliament, February 28th, 1867. This, known as the British North America Act, united the Provinces of Ontario (Upper Canada), Quebec (Lower Canada),

New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and made provision by which other portions of British North America should enter the union. The act came into force July 1st, 1867.

CHAPTER X.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

The Terms of Union.—The British North America Act provided for the government of the Dominion as a whole ; for the government of each province ; and for the admission of new provinces and territories. To carry out these provisions, there must be a general or Dominion government ; a local or provincial government ; and, to add new provinces, the consent of the Sovereign of Great Britain must be obtained.

The general government has control of matters that concern all the provinces ; such as trade and commerce, the postal service, currency, banking, the defence of the country, navigation, the fisheries, the Indians, appointment of judges, criminal law, penitentiaries, taking of the census, the more important public works, public lands not belonging to any of the provinces, and other matters of common interest. The general government has also the power to veto, or forbid, any act passed by a local parliament which would be opposed to the good of the whole country. As it has control of trade and commerce, it alone can levy duties on goods coming in or going out of the country. These are called customs duties. It may also impose taxes, called excise duties, on articles manufactured for use in the country.

The power to govern and make laws for the Dominion is vested in the governor-general and his advisers or ministers, the Senate, and the House of Commons. The governor-general represents, and is appointed by, the Sovereign of Great Britain. His ministers, usually thirteen (at this time, 1901, sixteen), must possess the confidence of the representatives of the people in parliament ; and thus the principle of responsible government is recognized in the larger Canada. The Senate is composed of members from the different provinces, appointed for life by the governor-general and his advisers. The number of senators is now (1901) eighty-one.

The House of Commons, elected by the people of the different provinces, consists, as regulated by the census of 1891, of 213 members, of whom Quebec has the fixed number of 65, and the other provinces numbers in proportion to their population, as compared with that of Quebec. Elections for the House of Commons are held every five years, or, if the governor-general on the advice of his ministers should dissolve the house, at shorter intervals.

By the terms of the union each province has a local government, which consists of a lieutenant-governor and his advisers, and a legislature consisting of one or two branches,—legislative council and house of assembly. All the provinces except Quebec and Nova Scotia have but one branch, a house of assembly, the members of which are elected by the people every four years (in Nova Scotia and Quebec every five years), subject to an earlier dissolution. Lieutenant-governors are appointed by the governor-general and his advisers for a period of five years. The advisers, or executive council, of each lieutenant-governor are responsible to the house of assembly; and through this to the people of each province. The government in each province has control of such important matters as the management of all public lands, education, establishment and regulation of provincial courts of justice, property and civil rights, and other matters of local concern. As the Dominion government took charge of the trade and commerce of the country, from which the larger part of the revenue in each province had been derived, it was arranged that the Dominion government should pay an annual sum to each province, equal to eighty cents a head of the population, added to which there is a fixed allowance for the expenses of government. The provinces, especially the older ones on the St. Lawrence, had large debts which had been incurred in past years in building canals, railways and other public works. The Dominion government assumed these debts.

The New Dominion.—"Dominion Day," July 1st, 1867, was observed throughout Canada with rejoicings. Separate colonies had become a Dominion, still under the protection of the British Crown, but enjoying the fullest measure of self-government, and including during the next few years all the remaining provinces and territories of British North America, except Newfoundland.

Lord Monck, the last governor of the province of Canada, became governor-general of the Dominion. Honours were bestowed upon public men who had been foremost in bringing about the union. Sir John A. Macdonald was called upon by the governor-general to form a ministry, and the first Dominion Parliament met at Ottawa, November 6th, 1867. The following are the names and offices of those who formed the first cabinet of the Dominion of Canada :—Sir John A. Macdonald, Minister of Justice ; Sir George E. Cartier, of Militia and Defence ; Hon. Peter Mitchell, of Marine and Fisheries ; Hon. W. McDougall, of Public Works ; Sir Leonard Tilley, of Customs ; Hon. C. J. Chapais, of Agriculture ; Sir Alexander Galt, of Finance ; Sir William Howland, of Inland Revenue ; Sir Alexander Campbell, Postmaster-General ; Hon. A. J. Blair, President of Council ; Sir Edward Kenny, Receiver-General ; Sir Hector Langevin, Secretary of State for Canada ; Sir Adams Archibald, Secretary of State for the Provinces.

It will be seen by turning to the History of England (p. 128), that more than two hundred years ago the King of England began to choose his advisers from the strongest party—that is, the party that had the majority in parliament. This rule of *party government* is carried on to-day in all parts of the British Empire where there is responsible government. In Canada and the Atlantic provinces before Confederation, there had been two parties—the Conservatives and the Liberals. As members of both parties had worked to bring about Confederation, the ministers were chosen from Liberals and Conservatives alike, in the hope that the differences and strife of the old parties would be forgotten. There were some, however, as George Brown, Alexander Mackenzie, Oliver Mowat, and many other Liberals, who declined to serve with Sir John Macdonald ; and there were others, as the Hon. A. J. Smith, of New Brunswick, and Hon. Joseph Howe, of Nova Scotia, who opposed confederation. These were united in their opposition to the government, and formed what is now known as the Liberal party. Sometimes one party is the stronger, sometimes the other ; but the ministry is always chosen from the party that has a majority in the assembly elected by the people. This rule also prevails in the provincial parliaments ; except that sometimes, as is now (1901) the

case in some of the provinces, there are coalition governments, that is, members of different parties unite, for the time, to form a government.

Unrest in Nova Scotia.—In Nova Scotia there was a strong opposition to union, because, among other reasons, the wishes of the people had not been consulted. A delegation, led by Joseph Howe, went to England to try to secure a repeal of the union, but without success. "Better terms" were given to the province in an additional yearly sum of money, as the allowance did not prove sufficient to meet the expenses of the provincial government. Opposition began slowly to die out. Joseph Howe became a member of the Dominion ministry in 1869. Four years later he was made lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, but died a month after his appointment.

The Province of Manitoba.—In the foregoing pages the history of the Hudson's Bay Company and the founding of the Red River Settlement have been briefly traced. In 1821, a charter for twenty-five years had been granted to the new Hudson's Bay Company, and this had been renewed for another twenty-five years. Shortly after Confederation, when the charter had nearly expired, the Canadian parliament, by permission of Great Britain, bought out the claims of the Company, giving it in return £300,000, some lands, and allowing it to retain certain trading privileges. In the year 1870, the new Province of Manitoba, embracing the Red River Settlement, was laid out. But, as in the case of Nova Scotia, the wishes of the people had not been consulted; and an outbreak of the half-breeds or *métis* (*mā-tēs'*), attended with confusion and bloodshed, was the result. In 1869, when the Hon. Wm. McDougall was appointed governor of the Northwest, and surveyors began their work near Fort Garry to define the limits of the new province, the half-breeds, thinking their lands were to be taken from them, stopped the survey. Under the leadership of Louis Riel (*ree-el'*), who had great influence over them, the half-breeds prepared for armed resistance. A government was formed with Riel as its head. All who were supposed to be in sympathy with the Canadians were roughly treated or taken prisoners. A loyal subject named Thomas Scott, a native of Ontario, was cruelly put to death (March, 1870) after the form of a trial. Dr. Schultz (*shoolts*), afterwards a

governor of Manitoba, was imprisoned in Fort Garry, but escaped and made his way in the dead of winter across the country to Lake Superior. When Governor McDougall tried to enter the territory, he met with armed resistance. He returned to Ottawa. A force of British regulars and Canadian volunteers, under command of Colonel Wolseley (lately the commander-in-chief of the British army), was sent to put down the outbreak. They were refused the privilege of entering the country by the ordinary route through the United States, and were obliged to march through the woods from Lake Superior. When they reached the Red River country, after a toilsome journey, all was quiet. Riel and other leaders had escaped to the United States. In the following year a band of Fenians threatened Manitoba; but they fled without striking a blow and were made prisoners on the border by United States troops. Sir Adams Archibald, of Nova Scotia, was made governor of Manitoba, settlers poured rapidly into the country, its prairies soon became dotted with farms, and the city of Winnipeg grew rapidly.

Other Provinces Added.—In the following year (1871), British Columbia came into the Dominion, one condition of its entrance being the building of a railway across the continent, connecting that province with the railways of the east. Two years later (1873), Prince Edward Island joined the Dominion. The Dominion government aided the people in getting rid of the land proprietors and assumed the railway debt. The Island has since steadily increased in population and wealth. It is especially noted for its agricultural and dairy products, and for live stock. No new provinces have been added to the Dominion since 1873; but the Northwest Territory has been divided into the districts of Assiniboia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Athabaska. These four districts are governed by one lieutenant-governor and council, and are represented in the Dominion parliament by two senators and four members. The unorganized territory, north and east of the above-named divisions, has been more recently divided into the districts of Yukon, Mackenzie, Franklin, Keewatin and Ungava.

Changes in Government.—In 1868, Lord Lisgar became governor-general, and in 1872 he was succeeded by Lord Dufferin, one of the ablest and most popular governors that Canada has had. In the Dominion election of 1872, the Conservative party, led

by Sir John A. Macdonald, was returned to power, with a decreased majority. In the following year the government resigned, and a Liberal government was formed under the leadership of Alexander Mackenzie. In 1872, a majority of the people's votes had been cast against the Liberal party. It was necessary that those who accepted office in the new ministry should return to the people for re-election; or, that a general election should be held throughout the Dominion. The latter course was adopted by the advice of Mr. Mackenzie, in order that he might find out whether his government had the confidence of the people of the whole country. The election took place early in 1874, and resulted in the return of the new government by a large majority.

We must try to find out a few of the reasons for this change of opinion among the people. There were two important matters which affected the interests of the whole country. These were the settlement of certain disputes with the United States and the building of the railway to British Columbia.

International Disputes.—We have seen that the settlement of the boundary line between British America and the United States was tedious, and at times caused ill feeling that threatened to end in war. But wiser counsels prevailed. The people of the great English-speaking races in Europe and America have come to see that there is a better way to settle their disputes than with the sword. Their differences have been frequent, and at times bitter; but for nearly a century these have been arranged without bloodshed; and it is hoped that there may never arise a quarrel that cannot be settled by peaceful means.

During the Civil War in the United States, cruisers, especially one called the "Alabama," secretly fitted out in British ports by agents of the Southern States, did great damage to the shipping of the Northern States. After the war ended the government of the United States asked payment from England for these damages. This and other matters in dispute were submitted to a Joint High Commission which met in Washington, in 1871, and framed the Treaty of Washington. This commission was made up of many able and eminent men appointed by the British and United States governments. Among the British commissioners was Sir John A.

Macdonald. The home government has since honoured Canadians by appointing them on similar commissions, to arrange disputes in which Canada is interested. The Washington Commission decided that the "Alabama" claims should be settled by a board of arbitrators or judges. This board met at Geneva the following year, and awarded \$15,500,000 to the United States, which Great Britain promptly paid. The San Juan Island dispute was submitted to the Emperor of Germany, and decided in favour of the United States. The Canadian claims for damages by Fenian raids were not even considered by the commission; and the canals of the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes were opened for the free use of United States vessels. The question of fishing on the coasts of the Atlantic provinces had been a source of dispute for some years. United States fishermen, since the repeal of the Reciprocity Treaty, had as free use of the fisheries as under that treaty. It was arranged that the coast fisheries of Canada and the United States should be thrown open for twelve years to the fishermen of each country, and that fish and fish oil should be admitted free of duty into either country. As the fisheries of the Atlantic provinces were more valuable, it was agreed that the United States should pay a certain sum of money, to be determined by a commission, which was to meet later. The award of this commission, which met at Halifax, in 1877, gave to Canada and Newfoundland \$5,500,000, which was paid within a year. After the expiration of the twelve years the fishery question again became the source of dispute, a dispute which is not settled yet. An arrangement was made in the meantime by which United States fishermen are allowed to fish in Canadian waters by paying a certain sum for a license.

The Treaty of Washington did not please the Canadians of Ontario, although it was satisfactory to the people of the Atlantic provinces. Another cause that tended to make the government of Sir John A. Macdonald unpopular was the "Pacific Scandal," as it was called. A company had been formed, of which Sir Hugh Allan was president, to build the Canadian Pacific Railway. It was charged that this company, in return for its charter to build the road, had given the government large sums of money to aid it in the elections of 1872. This led to an exciting debate in parliament and

to the formation of a commission of enquiry, which ended in the resignation of the Macdonald ministry.

The Canadian Pacific Railway.—It had been one of the terms of the agreement by which British Columbia entered the Dominion that a railway to connect the province with the east should be built within ten years ; but several years passed without any real attempt being made to build the road. The people of the western province became dissatisfied, and even threatened to withdraw from the union. The government of the Dominion promised a charter, with liberal aid in lands and money, to the company which should build the road ; the vastness of the work, however, and the amount of capital required discouraged more than one company. In 1875, the government began the work, but it went on slowly and with no definite system as to the manner and time of its completion. In 1878, the Mackenzie government was defeated in the elections and Sir John A. Macdonald returned again to power. In 1880, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company was formed, the government handing over to it the portions already built, and giving large subsidies in land and money (25,000,000 acres of land and \$25,000,000 in money). In the spring of 1881, the work was begun in earnest, and on the 12th of July, 1886, the first passenger train from Port Moody, on the Pacific coast, arrived in Montreal—ninety-one years after Alexander Mackenzie made the first overland journey to the Pacific !

A Protective Tariff.—In the general election campaign of 1878, Sir John A. Macdonald turned the tide of popular opinion in his favour by proposing a protective tariff. This is the “National Policy” that we have heard so much about ; and it has been the trade policy of Canada ever since, with some slight changes. It has a double aim,—to raise a sufficient revenue to meet the expenses of the country, and to *protect* and encourage the Canadian manufacturers by placing heavy duties on foreign goods of certain classes which can be made in the country. The dulness of trade that affected Canada, as well as every other country, between the years 1876 and 1879, led our people to believe that the new policy would revive Canadian trade and encourage home industries. The wonderful progress of the United States under a policy of protection was another argument in favour of the change. The Conservative party

was returned by a large majority. It introduced, in 1879, the new tariff protecting native industries ; and managed the affairs of the country for eighteen years after (1878-1896).

Sir John A. Macdonald retained the leadership until his death, which occurred June 6th, 1891, just after a general election in which his party had been returned to parliament by a large majority. Alexander Mackenzie died the following year. In the next five years Canada had five premiers, of whom four were Conservatives—Sir John Abbot, Sir John Thompson, Sir Mackenzie Bowell, and Sir Charles Tupper ; and one Liberal—Sir Wilfrid Laurier. In the general election of 1896, Sir Charles Tupper's ministry was defeated and Sir Wilfrid Laurier formed a Liberal government, which was again returned by an increased majority in 1900.

The Marquis of Lorne, son-in-law of Queen Victoria, became governor-general in 1878. During his vice-royalty, he, with his wife, the Princess Louise, visited every province of Canada. They were received with every mark of affection and loyal enthusiasm. In 1883, Lord Lansdowne became governor-general ; in 1888, Lord Stanley ; in 1893, Lord Aberdeen ; and in 1898, Lord Minto.

Outbreak in the Northwest.—The rising of half-breeds at Red River in 1869 was followed in 1885 by a much more serious outbreak of these excitable people, who had settled on the Saskatchewan River in the Northwest. The opening up of the country by railways, the coming of white hunters, settlers and land surveyors, had threatened the rude, wild life of the half-breeds, who saw their means of living disappearing by the slaughter of buffaloes and other wild animals of the plains. The delay of the government at Ottawa in listening to their complaints and in giving titles to the lands on which they had settled, soon caused a dangerous outbreak among these people, who at this time numbered about 4,000. Louis Riel, who was then living in Montana, was invited to become their leader. In 1874, he had been elected to represent a county in Manitoba in the House of Commons, but he was expelled from that body and fled to the United States. Riel now established a provisional government at Batoche, and with Gabriel Dumont (gā-bre-el' du-mōnŕ'), another half-breed leader, prepared for armed resistance. The Indians

who some years previously had been placed on "reserves"—lands set apart for them by government—became restless and showed signs of an outbreak. In March, 1885, Dumont's followers made an attack on some mounted police and volunteers at Duck Lake Settlement, killing several and forcing the others to retreat. Many of the Indians now broke out into open revolt, and several settlers were murdered. When news of the rising reached Ottawa, General Middleton, then commander-in-chief of the forces in Canada, was sent with 2,000 volunteers, gathered from Ontario, Quebec, and the Atlantic provinces. After a toilsome and difficult march, the Canadian Pacific Railway not being completed, the volunteers from the east, joined by others from Winnipeg and the Northwest, reached the scene of the rising, and it was soon put down—not, however, without some loss of life. Batoche, where the half-breeds made a last stand, was taken. Dumont fled to the United States; Riel was captured, tried, and hanged. Great efforts were made to secure his pardon by the French Canadians of the east, many of whom sympathized with the half-breeds in their struggle. The grievances of the half-breeds and Indians have been since redressed. The Mounted Police Force, established in 1873 to preserve law and order in the Northwest, has been increased to 1,000 men, and is one of the finest bodies of troops in the world. It was chiefly from men trained in this force that the Strathcona Horse Company was enlisted for the war in South Africa, in 1900.

Some Important Laws.—Many important laws for the welfare of the Dominion have been passed since Confederation. These can only receive brief mention here. In 1871, dual representation was abolished, that is, no one could be a member of the Dominion and a provincial parliament at the same time; in 1874, secret voting by ballot, instead of open voting, was introduced, and the same law provided that elections should be held on the same day throughout the Dominion; in 1875, the Supreme Court of Canada was established, a court of appeal for cases not settled in provincial courts; in 1878, the Canada Temperance (Scott) Act provided that any section or municipality may forbid the sale of intoxicating liquors within its limits; the Dominion Franchise Act in 1885 made the right to vote for members of the House of Commons uniform throughout the Dominion. This act, however, has been

repealed by one which restores the provincial franchise in federal elections.

Law-making in the Provinces.—The important subjects that are dealt with in the different provinces make legislation there scarcely less important than in the Dominion Parliament. Although the latter has the right to veto such laws as are injurious to the general welfare, or which interfere with the rights of the minority, this power has seldom been used. After the passage of the New Brunswick School Act in 1871, the Roman Catholics appealed successively to the Governor-General, the Dominion Parliament, and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council of Great Britain—the highest authority in the Empire—to disallow the Act, but without avail. In 1878, Mr. Letellier de Saint-Just (le-tel'-yā' de-san'-zhoost'), lieutenant-governor of Quebec, dismissed his ministers, and for this he was dismissed by the Dominion Government in the following year. In 1889, the Dominion Government was asked to disallow an Act passed by the Quebec legislature granting \$400,000 to the Roman Catholics in payment for lands which had been taken from the Jesuits in 1760; but it refused to interfere. The Manitoba School question disturbed the country from 1890 to 1896. In 1871, Manitoba passed a "separate" school act, requiring that the children of Roman Catholics and Protestants should be taught in separate schools. In 1890, the legislature repealed this and passed a free, non-sectarian act, like that of Nova Scotia and of New Brunswick. The Catholics demanded that the act be disallowed and that they should have their separate schools. The Dominion ministers asked the Manitoba Government to so change the law as to permit this, but the latter would not yield. When Sir Wilfrid Laurier became leader of the government, in 1896, an arrangement was entered into similar to that which prevails in some other provinces—that Roman Catholic children should have religious instruction after school hours. These are some of the cases in which differences have arisen between the Dominion and provincial parliaments. The difficulty of their settlement has led to the belief that provincial legislation should not be interfered with except in extreme cases.

Material Advance.—The progress of every portion of the country since Confederation has been very marked. Under the direction of the Geological and Natural History Survey, located at Ottawa,

different sections of the Dominion are being examined, and their natural resources made more fully known to the people and to the outside world. The establishment of Dominion and Provincial Experimental Farms has given great encouragement to agriculture, fruit raising and dairying. The complete system of railways through the country, and the steamship lines between Eastern Canada and Europe, and between British Columbia and China and Japan, have led to increased travel and immigration, opening up new avenues of trade. The development of mining, fisheries and other industries of British Columbia and Western Ontario, with the discovery of new goldfields on the Klondyke, in the frozen north; the filling up of the fertile plains of Manitoba and the Northwest with an energetic farming population; the superiority of climate, fertility of soil and energy of the people of Ontario; the establishment of large iron and steel industries in Cape Breton and the shores of Georgian Bay; the cotton and pulp-mill industries; the influence of two races working together in harmony in the older province of Quebec—all these have been great forces in adding to the material wealth and prosperity of Canada.

In the Atlantic provinces, a great variety of natural resources has been industriously worked by a vigorous and self-reliant population. Many of the young people of these provinces, with a good education and with habits of industry and thrift, have sought homes for themselves in the larger provinces of the West and in the United States. In New Brunswick, the people are finding out that the true source of their wealth is in the soil, and increased attention is being given to farming, stock-raising and dairying. The building of wooden ships in this as well as in the other Atlantic provinces has ceased to be a great industry. The care of forests and better methods of lumbering are engaging the attention of the government and people of New Brunswick. In Nova Scotia, the coal mines in the east of the province, especially in Pictou county and in Cape Breton, are being developed on a larger scale than heretofore. Farming and fruit-growing are carried on with great success in the Annapolis valley and in other districts. In the Atlantic provinces, the fisheries must always remain a steady source of wealth, and their preservation a constant care of the government and people. Many flourishing manufactures are also growing up throughout the

provinces. Prince Edward Island has increased in wealth and population, and her products of the farm and dairy are well known. The Island has felt the need of an improved steam service with the other provinces all the year round. This was promised by the general government when the Island came into the Dominion. The failure to provide such communication has led the Dominion Government this year (1901) to grant "better terms" by giving the sum of \$30,000 a year in addition to the amount annually received by the Island from the Dominion. There is a fine system of railway communication between all parts of Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the West. The Inter-colonial Railway, built since Confederation, has recently been extended to Montreal, and the Canadian Pacific Railway now has a line across Maine to connect with the Atlantic province system of railways. Great improvements have been made in steam communication between Canada and other countries; but there is still required a fast line steamship service all the year round between Great Britain and Canada.

Newfoundland.—The Island of Newfoundland has not yet cast in its lot with the Dominion. In 1895, when Newfoundland was the scene of great depression in trade, and when great distress prevailed among the people, a proposal was made for union; but unfortunately the Dominion Government and the Island delegates could not agree upon the terms. A railway has been built across the Island from St. John's to Port aux Basques (port'-ô-bask') on the west. From that point there is steamship communication with Cape Breton, connecting the Island with the great railway system of Canada.

Some Recent Events.—Some years ago, a dispute arose between Canada and the United States about the right of catching seals in the Bering Sea. The latter country claimed possession of the sea, and captured Canadian vessels engaged in the seal fishery there. The dispute was settled peaceably by arbitrators, who decided that the sea did not belong to the United States, and that country was called upon to pay for the vessels seized. The question concerning the protection of seals in those waters has not yet been settled, although a joint high commission to arrange this and the Alaskan boundary, the fisheries question, reciprocity of

trade and other matters in dispute, met at Quebec in 1898, and afterwards at Washington in 1899. The commission devoted much time and attention to these questions, but failed to come to a decision.

In June, 1894, delegates from Great Britain, New Zealand, Australia, Cape Colony and Canada, met in Ottawa to talk over plans for furthering trade and communication. Though nothing definite was accomplished, the meeting together of men from widely different parts of the Empire had a good effect. Since that time a preferential tariff in regard to Great Britain has been adopted; lower duties being laid on imports into Canada from that country than from foreign countries.

In 1894, Sir John Thompson, Canada's prime minister, was sworn in a member of the privy council of England, an honour bestowed on Sir John A. Macdonald some years before, and on Sir Wilfrid Laurier three years later. A few hours after the ceremony, Sir John Thompson died suddenly at Windsor Castle. His body was sent to Canada in a British warship, and honoured with a state funeral at Halifax.

Two cities of the Dominion have suffered greatly from fires. On the 20th of June, 1877, St. John was visited by a destructive fire which caused the loss of upwards of \$20,000,000 worth of property; and on the 26th April, 1900, a large part of the city of Ottawa was laid in ashes. Assistance was sent from Great Britain, United States and from different parts of Canada to those who had been ruined and left destitute by these calamities.

The outbursts of enthusiasm that witnessed the departure of the Canadian soldiers to fight the battles of the Empire in South Africa, have never been equalled in Canada. The first Canadian regiment, consisting of 1,000 men, under the command of Colonel Otter, left Quebec for Capetown late in October, 1899; and the second contingent, numbering over 1,000—artillerymen and mounted riflemen—left Halifax early in the following year. These were followed by a troop of 600 mounted soldiers from the west, raised and equipped by Lord Strathcona. Many lost their lives in battle, and from wounds and disease. Their graves on the South African veldt lie side by side with those from other parts of the

Empire who lost their lives in fighting the battles of the Motherland. Those who returned in the latter part of 1900, and early in the year 1901, were met with every token of joy and welcome throughout the Dominion.

Social and Intellectual Progress.—A sketch of progress in Canada would not be complete without some reference to the intellectual and social life of its people. The systems of free schools in the provinces, the high schools and colleges everywhere within their borders, and the increase of wealth and leisure, have encouraged a taste for science, art and literature. The artists and poets of Canada have been content to depict its grand natural scenery, the wealth of beauty in mountain and plain, lake and river. Its poets and prose writers have told us the story of its romantic past. The fame of many of these writers has gone beyond their native country. Nova Scotia has given birth to Howe, Haliburton and to Sir William Dawson, whose name stands foremost in the Dominion for his teachings and writings on science. The age of literature and science came later in New Brunswick and Quebec, but there are now poets and prose writers in these provinces whose work takes high rank. In history, science and literature there are many well-known names in Ontario and the west. The Royal Society of Canada, to encourage literature and science, and the Royal Canadian Academy to encourage art, were founded by the Marquis of Lorne and Princess Louise, whose names are remembered with gratitude for the interest they took in the social and intellectual life of the country.

Growth of a National Spirit.—A third of a century ago, the country we are now proud to call Canada was made up of colonies or provinces with separate interests and with few ties to bind them together. Now they are joined, with a growing ambition to become knit together more closely as a Dominion and more closely united to the Great British Empire, of which they form an important part. The past few years have seen the growth of this desire for the greater union, called Imperial Federation—as yet only a thought taking shape. On the other side of the world the British colonies on a great Island-Continent have formed themselves into the Commonwealth of Australia, similar to our own Dominion. Two years ago, when Great Britain was forced into a war with the

Boers of South Africa, volunteers from Canada and other parts of the Empire won the highest praise for the coolness and courage which they showed on many a hard-fought battlefield. On the 20th of June, 1897, the "Diamond Jubilee," the people of Canada had hailed with rejoicing the completion of Queen Victoria's sixty years of rule over her vast empire; and on the 22nd of January, 1901, they mourned, with a sorrow just as sincere, the death of that great and good Queen. The accession of her eldest son, Albert Edward, to the throne, with the title of Edward VII., called forth rejoicings, no less sincere though more subdued on account of the loss of the Nation's Queen. The visit, a few months later, of the Duke of Cornwall and York, the King's eldest son, and the heir to the British throne, has given Canadians, as well as the other inhabitants of Britain's great colonies throughout the world, another opportunity to testify their loyalty and attachment to the Motherland.

Thus has the bond of union become closer, and a national spirit and a firmer devotion to the Empire grown rapidly in the past few years, giving a fresh life to its statesmen and people, and calling upon all to sink whatever is petty, mean and base, and to rise to a purer and nobler national life.

POPULATION OF CANADA BY PROVINCES.

	1891.	1901.
Ontario.....	2,114,321	2,167,978
Quebec.....	1,488,500	1,620,974
Nova Scotia..	450,396	459,116
New Brunswick.....	321,263	331,093
Manitoba.....	152,506	246,464
British Columbia.....	98,173	190,000
Prince Edward Island.....	109,673	103,258
The Territories.....	98,967	220,000

[Leading Events are printed in heavy-faced type.]

Coming of Northmen, about..	1000
Columbus discovers America, Oct. 12.....	1492
The Cabots land on Cape Breton, June 24.....	1497
The Cabots' second voyage.....	1498
Cortereal sails along the coast of Labrador.....	1500
Fishing vessels visit the coast of Newfoundland.....	1504
Sebastian Cabot enters Hudson's Bay.....	1517
Verrazano sails from Florida to Newfoundland.....	1524
Jacques Cartier explores the Gulf of St. Lawrence.....	1534
He ascends the River St. Lawrence.....	1535
Attempts (with Roberval) to plant a colony at Quebec.....	1541-2
Martin Frobisher attempts to find the "North-West passage,".....	1575-78
Sir Francis Drake explores the Pacific Coast to the 48th parallel.....	1578-79
Sir Humphrey Gilbert attempts to colonize Newfoundland.....	1579-83

Champlain's First Voyage....	1603
He explores the Bay of Fundy	1604
Founds Port Royal.....	1605
Founds Quebec.....	1608
He is made Governor of Canada.....	1612
His Death.....	1635

First of the Jesuit Fathers land at Port R.....	1611
Port Royal captured and destroyed by Argall.....	1613
Recollet Fathers arrive at Quebec.....	1615
Acadia granted to Sir William Alexander.....	1621
Jesuit Fathers establish themselves at Quebec.....	1625-26
Company of the "One Hundred Associates" formed...	1627
Port Royal taken by the English.....	1629
Quebec taken by the English.....	1629
Restored (with Acadia) to the French by Treaty of St. German-en-Laye.....	1632
Jesuit missions established in the Huron Country.....	1640
Montreal founded.....	1642
Port La Tour taken.....	1645
Jesuit missions in Huron Country destroyed.....	1648-9
English again in possession of Acadia.....	1654
Defence of Long Sault (rapids)....	1660
Company of "One Hundred Associates" surrenders its charter.....	1663

Canada becomes a Crown Colony.....	1663
Quebec Seminary (afterwards Laval University) founded.....	1663
Succession of earthquakes throughout Canada, February to August	1663

West India Company formed, with trading privileges in Canada, Acadia, West Indies.....	1664
Acadia restored to France by the Treaty of Breda.....	1667
The Recollet Fathers re-established in Canada.....	1669
Hudson's Bay Company formed....	1670
Frontenac governor of Canada.....	1672
Marquette and Jolliet discover the Mississippi.....	1672
La Salle passes down the Mississippi.	1681
Frontenac's recall.....	1682
His successor, M. de la Barr, makes peace with the Iroquois.....	1684
Massacre of La Chine.....	1689
Frontenac again governor.....	1689
Three French War parties attack the English Settlements to the South	1690
English Capture Port Royal and unsuccessfully attack Quebec and Montreal.....	1690
The Iroquois country devastated by Frontenac.....	1691
Treaty of Ryswick.....	1697
Death of Frontenac.....	1698
"Queen Anne's War" begins.....	1702
Marquis de Vaudreuil, governor of Canada.....	1703-25
Col. Church devastates Acadia....	1704
Final Capture of Port Royal (Annapolis Royal) by the English.....	1710
Treaty of Utrecht.....	1713

CONQUEST OF CANADA, 1714-1763.

French begin to fortify Louisbourg.....	1714
First lighthouse erected in Canada at Louisbourg.....	1734
First Capture of Louisbourg.....	1745
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle....	1748
Founding of Halifax.....	1749
Of Dartmouth.....	1750
Of Lunenburg.....	1753
Halifax Gazette issued, first newspaper in British North America.....	1752

Marquis Duquesne governor of Canada.....	1752
Capture of Fort Beauséjour (Cumberland), June 16.....	1755
Braddock defeated, July 9.....	1755
Exile of the Acadians, Sept....	1755
Gen. Wm. Johnson defeats the French at Lake George, Sept. 8..	1755
Montcalm takes Fort Oswego.....	1756
Montcalm captures Fort William Henry on Lake George.....	1757
Second Capture of Louisbourg.	1758
Cape Breton and St. John Island become British possessions.....	1758
First Legislative Assembly in Canada, meets in Halifax..	1758
Fort Niagara taken by Sir William Johnson.....	1759
Battle of the Plains of Abraham, Sept. 13.....	1759
Surrender of Quebec, Sept. 18.	1759
Newfoundland recognized as a British colony.....	1759
Gen. Murray defeated at St. Foye.	1760
Battle of Petit Roche, July.....	1760
Montreal surrendered to British, Sept. 8.....	1760
Canada ceded to Great Britain by Treaty of Paris, Feb. 10	1763

CANADA UNDER BRITISH RULE, 1763.

Conspiracy of Pontiac.....	1763-64
County of Sunbury, New Brunswick, formed.....	1765
Sir Guy Carleton governor of Canada.....	1766
St. John (Prince Edward Island) becomes a separate province.	1769
First Assembly in P. E. Island (second in Canada) called....	1773
Quebec Act passed.....	1774
Revolutionary War breaks out	1775
Canada invaded.....	1775
An unsuccessful attack made on Quebec by Montgomery and Arnold, Dec. 31.....	1775
British Fleet arrives before Quebec.	1776

United States forces driven out of Canada	1776
Arnold's Fleet destroyed on Lake Champlain	1776
General Haldimand becomes governor	1778
Capt. Cook explores the Coast of British Columbia	1778
British Fur Station established at Nootka Sound	1780
Public Grammar School founded at Halifax	1780
Treaty of Versailles, Sept. 3	1783
Landing of United Empire Loyalists at St. John, May 18	1783
St. John incorporated.	1783
Cape Breton becomes a separate province	1784
New Brunswick proclaimed a separate province	1784
First mail route opened in Canada, between Halifax and Quebec	1784
First Legislative Assembly of N. B., called in St. John	1786
First Classical School opened at Kingston, Ont.	1786
Fredericton becomes the capital of New Brunswick	1786
Sir Guy Carleton (Lord Dorchester) becomes first governor-general of the B.N.A. Provinces	1787
Mackenzie reaches Arctic Ocean by Mackenzie River	1789
King's College opened at Windsor	1790
Constitutional Act passed	1791
Division of Canada into Upper and Lower	1791
First Legislative Assembly of Upper Canada meets	1792
Mackenzie crosses the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific	1793
Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, visits Halifax	1794
York (Toronto) becomes capital of Upper Canada	1794
T. C. Haliburton (Sam Slick) born, Dec. 17	1796
King's College (University of New Brunswick) founded	1800

Joseph Howe born, Dec. 13	1804
Public Grammar School founded in St. John	1805
First Canadian steamboat launched at Montreal	1809
Selkirk's Settlement on Red River founded	1812

THE WAR OF 1812.

War declared between Great Britain and United States, June 18	1812
Capture of Fort Mackinaw by Canadians and Indians, July 17	1812
Detroit surrenders, Aug. 16	1812
Battle of Queenston Heights, Oct. 13	1812
Gen. Dearborn repulsed at Lacolle River, Nov. 30	1812
Battle of Frenchtown	1813
York (Toronto) captured by United States troops, April	1813
Sir John Harvey's successful night attack at Stoney Creek, June 5 ..	1813
U.S. troops captured at Beaver Dams, June 24	1813
Defeat of British Fleet on Lake Erie, Sept. 13	1813
Proctor defeated at Moraviantown, Oct. 5	1813
De Salaberry defeats Hampton at Chateaugay, Oct. 26	1813
Battle of Chrysler's Farm, Nov. 11	1813
U.S. troops repulsed at Lacolle Mill, March 30	1814
Oswego captured by British, May 6 ..	1814
Battle of Lundy's Lane, July 25 ..	1814
Defeat of British Fleet on Lake Champlain, Sept. 11	1814
Treaty of Ghent, Dec. 24	1814

BEFORE CONFEDERATION, 1815-1867.

First Steamer on the St. John River	1816
Hudson's Bay and North-West Fur Companies united	1816
Pictou Academy founded	1816

Grand Manan and other islands in Bay of Fundy declared British territory.....	1817
First complete census of Nova Scotia (population 81,351)....	1817
Sir Leonard Tilley born, May 8....	1818
Cape Breton reunited to Nova Scotia.....	1820
Sir Wm. Dawson, born at Pictou, N.S., Oct. 13.....	1820
Lachine Canal begun.....	1821
First complete census of New Brunswick, (population 74,176).....	1824
Great Fire at Miramichi.....	1825
King's College (University of Toronto), founded.....	1827
McGill College opened.....	1829
Outbreak of cholera at Quebec....	1832
First Assembly elected in Newfoundland.....	1832
First Steamer to cross the Atlantic— <i>Royal William</i> —from Pictou, N.S., to London in 23 days.....	1833
First Canadian railway opened, between Laprairie and St. Johns, P.Q.....	1836
Joseph Howe first enters Nova Scotia Legislature.....	1837
Queen Victoria's Accession....	1837
Rebellion in Canada.....	1837-38
First penny newspaper printed in Canada and the British Empire, St. John, N.B., <i>News</i>	1838
Lord Durham's report to British Parliament.....	1839
Upper and Lower Canada united.....	1841
Boundary between Maine and New Brunswick settled.....	1842
Queen's College, Kingston, opened	1842
Mount Allison Academy, Sackville, opened.....	1843
Ladies' College opened.....	1854
University of Mount Allison organized.....	1862
Treaty of Oregon.....	1846

Responsible Government established in N.S. and N.B.	1848
In P.E. Island.....	1851
In Newfoundland.....	1855
First telegraph message between St. John and Halifax, Nov. 9.....	1849
Municipal Act passed in Ontario...	1849
In New Brunswick.....	1878
In Nova Scotia.....	1879
General acts were passed providing for the incorporation of all the counties in those provinces. These acts have been consolidated and enlarged in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick during recent years, providing the fullest measure of independence to the people of any defined district in managing their local affairs and trying on efficiently any local improvements. Before the passage of municipal laws, the cities of St. John, Halifax and Fredericton had been incorporated, with a few towns in each province, and in New Brunswick several counties; but for this it was necessary to get a special act or charter from the legislature. In Nova Scotia a general act for the incorporation of towns was adopted in 1888. Before the incorporation of counties and towns, the general sessions in each county, composed of justices of the peace, had attended to all local affairs.	
First Submarine Cable laid in North America, between N.B. and P.E. Island.....	1851
Postage stamps first used in Canada.....	1851
Free Schools established in P.E. Island.....	1852
In Nova Scotia.....	1864
In New Brunswick.....	1872

Reciprocity Treaty with U.S. ..	1854
Discovery of Gold in British Columbia	1857
Decimal Currency adopted instead of pounds, shillings and pence...	1858
Government established in British Columbia	1858
First Atlantic Cable laid.	1858
First overland journey between Upper Canada and Pacific Ocean	1859
Railway opened, St. John to Shediac	1860
The Prince of Wales, now Edward VII, visited Canada	1860
Civil War in United States. 1861-65	
Confederation conference at Charlottetown, Sept. 1 ...	1864
At Quebec, Oct. 10.	1864
Battle of Ridgeway	1866
Union of British Columbia and Vancouver Island into one province..	1866
Threatened Fenian invasion of Campobello	1866
B.N.A. Act passed by British Parliament, March 29.	1867
Dominion of Canada proclaimed, July 1	1867

**AFTER CONFEDERATION,
1867-1902.**

Assassination of T. d'Arcy McGee, April 7	1868
Lord Lisgar, governor-general	1868
The Saxby Gale, Oct. 5	1869
Red River Rebellion	1869-70
Province of Manitoba formed.	1870
Hudson's Bay Territory transferred to Canada	1870
Fenians invade Canada, May	1870
British Columbia enters Dominion.	1871
Treaty of Washington, May 8.	1871
Fenian raid in Manitoba, Oct.	1871
First Census of Dominion taken (population, 3,635,024)	1871
Dual Representation abolished	1871
British regular troops withdrawn from Quebec	1871

Lord Dufferin, governor-general ...	1872
General Election, Conservatives in majority	1872
Intercolonial Railway opened between St. John and Halifax	1872
Joseph Howe, lieut.-governor of Nova Scotia	1873
Died, June 1	1873
P. E. Island enters Dominion. ..	1873
Island of San Juan awarded to United States	1873
Death of Sir George E. Cartier, May 20	1873
The Mackenzie Administration formed	1873
General Election, Liberals in majority	1874
Voting by secret ballot adopted...	1874
Supreme Court of Canada established	1875
Intercolonial Railway opened from Quebec to Halifax	1876
Great Fire in St. John, June 20....	1877
Canada Temperance (Scott) Act passed	1878
Marquis of Lorne, governor-general	1878
General Election, Conservatives in majority	1878
Protective policy adopted in tariff.	1879
First Canadian appointed to Imperial Privy Council, Sir John A. Macdonald	1879
Sir A. T. Galt appointed Canadian High Commissioner in London ..	1880
Death of Hon. George Brown	1880
Royal Academy of Arts founded...	1880
All British Possessions on North American continent (except Newfoundland) annexed to Canada.	1880
Canadian Pacific Railway Company incorporated.	1881
First sod on main line turned, May 2	1881
Line completed, Nov. 7	1885
Short line across Maine open for traffic, June 2	1889
C. P. R. cars enter Halifax, June 3.	1889

Royal Society of Canada founded..	1881	General Election, Liberals in majority	1896
Lord Lansdowne, governor-general	1883	Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Premier of Canada	1896
Canadian Contingent volunteered for service on the Nile and in Soudan	1884	Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria, June 20.....	1897
Imperial Federation League (British Empire League) formed at Montreal	1884	Joint High Commission meets at Quebec	1898
Outbreak in the North-West ..	1885	At Washington	1899
Riel hanged, Nov. 16.....	1885	Lord Minto, governor-general	1898
Dominion Franchise Act passed....	1885	War breaks out in South Africa.....	1899
General Election, Conservatives in majority.....	1887	Departure of First Contingent from Quebec, Oct. 30.....	1899
Imperial Conference held in London	1887	Death of Sir Wm. Dawson, Nov. 19	1899
Jubilee Year of Queen Victoria	1887	Departure of Second Contingent from Halifax, Jan.-Feb.....	1900
Lord Stanley, governor-general....	1888	Battle of Paardeberg, Feb. 27	1900
The Jesuits' Estates Act.....	1888	Great Fire in Ottawa and Hull, April 26	1900
General Election, Conservatives in majority.....	1891	General Election, Liberals in majority, Nov. 7.....	1900
Death of Sir John A. Macdonald June 6.....	1891	Commonwealth of Australia proclaimed, Jan. 1.....	1901
Death of Hon. Alex. Mackenzie April 17.....	1892	Death of Queen Victoria, Jan. 22	1901
Legislative Council of New Brunswick abolished	1892	Accession of King Edward VII, Jan. 22	1901
Legislative Council of P. E. Island abolished.....	1893	Visit to Canada of Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York (Prince and Princess of Wales)	1901
Earl of Aberdeen, governor-general	1893	Death of Lord Dufferin, Feb. 12....	1902
Colonial Conference at Ottawa, June	1894	Duration of New Brunswick legislature made five years instead of four	1902
Death of Sir John Thompson at Windsor Castle, Dec. 12.....	1894		
Discovery of gold in the Klondyke	1896		
Sir Charles Tupper becomes leader of Conservative party	1896		

